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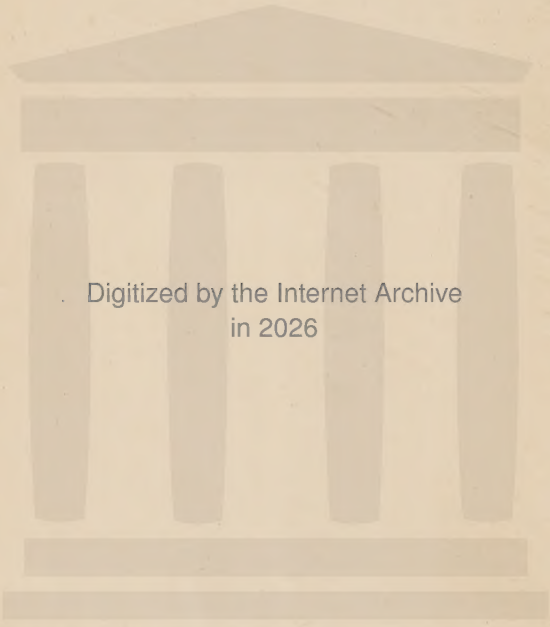

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THE

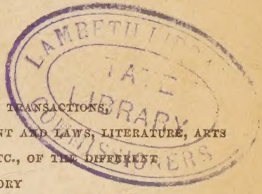
SCHOOL AND FAMILY

HISTORY OF ENGLAND

FROM THE EARLIEST PERIOD

TO THE

NINETEENTH YEAR OF THE REIGN OF QUEEN VICTORIA



CONTAINING

A NARRATIVE OF CIVIL AND MILITARY TRANSACTIONS;

AND EXHIBITING A VIEW OF THE RELIGION, GOVERNMENT AND LAWS, LITERATURE, ARTS COMMERCE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, ETC., ETC., OF THE DIFFERENT PERIODS OF ENGLISH HISTORY

BY

EDWARD FARR, F.S.A.

NEW EDITION

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PREFACE

TO THE PRESENT EDITION.

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"HISTORY," writes the poet Wordsworth, "is Time's slavish scribe." As events happen in the world, it stands charged with the task of recording them for the information and benefit of posterity. And these events are manifold. It is not only the wars in which a country has been engaged that should be unfolded in the pages of history. A nation's true greatness does not consist in the victories gained by its armies; they exhibit only its physical, not its moral and mental, strength. History embraces a far wider range of events. Besides narrating a nation's wars, both foreign and civil, and exhibiting the rise, fall, and decline of dynasties, it must present a view of the people at large in their social condition at VARIOUS epochs; of their religion, government, laws, literature, arts, science, commerce, manners and customs, &c: in a word, of their gradual progress from barbarism to civilisation. History has, also, to delineate character: whoever has made himself a name for talents, knowledge, patriotism, valour, or great virtues, should obtain a prominent place in its pages.

It is on such principles as these that the Collegiate, School, and Family History of England has been written. And such a history for the young must be considered of the utmost value; for it will not only make them acquainted with past events and bygone characters, but it will have the effect of inciting them to emulate the deeds and the virtues, as well as to shun the faults, of their forefathers,

and, by an intelligent comprehension of the past, qualify them to discharge, efficiently, all the duties of active life.

Originally the narrative of this History was only brought down to the eleventh year of the reign of Queen Victoria. Subsequently the whole body of the text was subjected to a careful revision, and the narrative was continued to the close of the great Crimean war, *i.e.* to the opening of the year 1856. The work being now established as a popular class-book, and many events of importance having taken place since that date, an additional section has been added to the reign of our Gracious Queen, and the present edition closes at the opening of the great International Exhibition which distinguishes the year 1862. It is the publishers' intention, as events occur worthy of being placed on the roll of History, to make still further additions, in order that the volume may at all times be found worthy of the public patronage.

E. F.

IVER: *August* 1, 1862.

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THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

THE ANCIENT BRITONS — THEIR ORIGIN, CONDITION, ETC.

The origin of the first inhabitants of the British Islands is involved in obscurity; nothing is known of them that can be relied on as certain. Some of the most probable of the early traditions respecting them are preserved in some Welsh poetical histories, written in verses of three lines each, and called Triads. In one of these it is stated that before our island was inhabited at all, it was called *Clas Merddin*, that is, the "Country of sea and cliffs," and afterwards *Fel Ynis*, the "Island of honey;" that the first inhabitants were the Cymri, ancestors of the present Welsh, who came to England across the German Ocean from the "Country of summer," supposed to mean Constantinople, under the guidance of a chief called "Hugh the Strong." One of these Cymri chiefs named Prydain was the first who established a government in the island, and from him it was called *Prydain* or Britain. Before these Cymri came, the only inhabitants were "bears, wolves, and oxen with the high prominence," or buffaloes. The name of Britain, however, has been said by some to be derived from two Celtic words meaning "Painted people," and by others again from two different words, meaning "Land of tin," which is also the signification of the name *Cassiterides*, by which our country was known to the Greeks.

After the Cymri had settled in Britain other tribes came to it; some called Picts to Scotland, others of the Celtic race to the southern parts of Britain, from France: but, in the absence of any real historical evidence concerning these times, we can do little more than choose, among various accounts, those that appear the least

improbable. As an instance of what absurdities have been sometimes gravely put forth under the name of history, may be mentioned a story told by Geoffrey of Monmouth, an ecclesiastic who lived in the twelfth century, and wrote what he called a History of the Britons. According to this account the first Britons were descendants of Trojans, a party of whom had found their way to this country under the guidance of a certain Brutus, a grandson or great-grandson of Æneas, after the destruction of Troy. This Brutus and his party landed in Cornwall, where they found some giants already in possession, and had some terrific combats with them, especially with one Gog-magog, who was seventy-two feet high, and whom nevertheless one of the companions of Brutus succeeded in throwing from a rock headlong into the sea. This tale has been repeated by various historians and even by Milton, though he expresses his disbelief of it.

By degrees, as we advance towards less remote times, we leave mere fables behind us, and, we may say, in the words of Milton, "having travelled through a region of idle dreams, history arrives on the confines where daylight and truth meet us with a clear dawn."

The only fact that appears to be well authenticated concerning those first ages is, that Britain was visited by the Phœnicians, who may even have left colonies of their people, both here and in Ireland. Some remarkable ancient buildings called the Round Towers, of which remains may still be seen in Ireland, are supposed on good grounds to have been erected by them.

These Phœnicians, who were enterprising commercial people, and the most skilful navigators of the time, ventured to pass the Straits of Gibraltar, and proceeded along the coasts of Spain and France till they reached Britain, with the view of trading with its inhabitants for tin; a valuable article, which they could scarcely procure elsewhere, and for the production of which Cornwall was already celebrated.

The exact situation of these islands, however, appears to have been known only to the Phœnicians, and they kept the secret very carefully for several hundred years. Strabo relates, that on one occasion the master of a Phœnician vessel even ran his ship aground and destroyed it, on finding that some Roman mariners were resolved to follow his course.

During their season of commerce some of the Phœnician traders may have found inducements to settle in Britain, and may have amalgamated with its earlier inhabitants; but there is no doubt of the numerous population afterwards found by the Romans having been almost wholly Celtic. Julius Cæsar, the first writer who has described these people, states that their language, their religious

rites, and their buildings bore the closest resemblance to those of the Celtic races inhabiting Gaul, with whom they were in alliance, and whom they continually aided in their contests with the Romans. The inhabitants of the interior, though more rude in their manners, and less advanced in civilisation, were evidently of the same descent, and spoke dialects of the same Celtic tongue; and additional evidence of the fact of the country having been first occupied by a Celtic population is found in its topographical nomenclature; while the names of towns and villages are usually of Anglo-Saxon derivation, those of hills, forests, rivers, and other striking natural objects and localities, both on the coast and in the interior of the country, are of Celtic. It seems clear, therefore, that though colonies from other quarters may have mingled with them, the Celtic population formed the basis of society over the greater part of Britain, and everything of the greatest antiquity that survives among us is of Celtic origin.*

At the period of the Roman invasion a large part of England was hidden by thick forests, extending many miles in length, while

* The names of the British or Celtic tribes existing at the commencement of authenticated English History have been given as follows: —

1. The *Bibroci* in Surrey, Kent, Sussex, and part of Berkshire.
2. The *Segontiaci* in Hampshire and part of Berkshire.
3. The *Durotriges* in Dorsetshire.
4. The *Carnabri* } both in Devonshire.
5. The *Cimbri* }
6. The *Hedui* in Somersetshire, part of Gloucestershire, and Wiltshire.
7. The *Ancalites* in a small district near Henley-on-Thames.
8. The *Dobuni* in Oxfordshire, part of Gloucestershire, and part of Worcestershire.
9. The *Cassii* in Hertfordshire, Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Middlesex, and Essex.
10. The *Iceni Magni* in Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, and part of Northamptonshire.
11. The *Coriceni*, including the *Jugantes*, in Lincolnshire, Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, Rutlandshire, and part of Northamptonshire.
12. The *Carnabii* in Warwickshire, Staffordshire, Shropshire, and Cheshire.
13. The *Brigantes* in Durham, Yorkshire, Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Lancashire. In these three minor tribes are included.
14. The *Voluntii* } in the countries north of the Tyne, extending into Scotland.
15. The *Sistuntii* }
16. The *Parisi* }
17. The *Ottadini* }
18. The *Gadeni* }
19. The *Silures* } in Wales, except the isle of Anglesea and a small tract near Bangor.
20. The *Dimetæ* }
21. The *Ordovices* }
22. The *Cangiani* in the Isle of Anglesea and a small tract near Bangor.

Although, however, the general portion of these tribes may be traced in a map of England, it must not be supposed that their boundaries were marked with any precision. Rivers and ranges of hills probably formed what lines of demarcation there were among them; but these lines could not then be so exactly defined as they are at present.

other districts were occupied by marshes, continually overflowed by the rivers whose course was hindered by various obstacles, and by lakes whose waters could find no outlet.

The inhabitants were very few in number, and in character wild, fierce, and uncivilised. Their clothing, if it could be called such, consisted of nothing more than the skins of animals in the natural state; their bodies were marked by strange figures and devices made by pricking the skin and then rubbing the fractured places with the juice of a plant called woad, which stained them of a blue colour. Their food consisted of the milk and flesh of their flocks and herds, though in the interior the people had scarcely advanced even so far towards civilisation as to keep animals in a domestic state, but subsisted by hunting and fishing; for which they used small canoes hollowed out of trees, or wicker frames covered with skins, which they could carry on their backs from river to river, and which somewhat resembled the coracles still used on the rivers of Wales. The Latin poet Lucan alludes to this usage in the following passage: —

> "The bending willows into barks they twine;
> Then line the work with skins of slaughtered kine.
> Such are the floats Venetian fishers know,
> Where in dull marshes stands the settling Po.
> On such to neighbouring Gaul, allured by gain,
> The bolder Britons cross the swelling main.
> Like these, when fruitful Egypt lies afloat,
> The Memphian artist builds his reedy boat."

Some of the ancient Britons were employed in agriculture, especially in the southern districts, where the inhabitants seem to have been more enlightened and civilised than in other parts of the country. Corn was cultivated there to some extent, the earth being tilled, or rather scratched with a rough plough, or dug with a mattock. To the flail the Britons appear to have been strangers. Diodorus says they had granaries, or subterranean chambers, in which they housed their corn in the ear, beating out no more than they required for one day; then, drying and bruising the grain, they made food for immediate use. Some vestiges of this ancient usage remained not long ago in the western islands of Scotland, and the process has been thus described: —

"A woman sitting down takes a handful of corn, holding it by the stalks in her left hand, and then sets fire to the ears, which are presently in a flame; she has a stick in her right hand, which she manages very dextrously, beating off the grain at the very instant when the husk is quite burnt; for if she miss of that, she must use the kiln. The corn may be so dressed, winnowed, ground, and baked within an hour." In the isles of Scotland this process is called *graddan*, from the Irish word *grad*, which signifies "quick."

The houses of the ancient Britons were of a very rude construction. Diodorus calls them wretched cottages, constructed of wood, and covered with straw. Those of the ruder tribes were mere huts, which could be removed from place to place; and the houses in the towns were generally little better, being formed of the boughs of trees interwoven, and covered with clay. They were of a conical form, the roof tapering to a point, with an aperture to let out the smoke. The interior was an open space, and was used by the family in common, both by day and night. The fire was kindled in the centre, and the inhabitants slept around it on a bed of rushes. Among the tribes who had intercourse with the Gauls some had houses formed exclusively of timber or stone; but these were as roughly constructed as the wattled houses of the rudest tribes. In many parts of the United Kingdom vestiges are to be seen of the stone foundations and walls of these circular houses. Thus, at Chun Castle in Cornwall are several remains of these buildings, which consist of large stones, measuring from ten to twenty feet in diameter, piled together without mortar, and having a doorway with an upright stone or jamb on each side. There is no appearance of either chimneys or windows in them.

The towns were generally placed on hills and surrounded by woods and ditches for security: hence Strabo says that the forests of the Britons were their cities; for when they had enclosed a very large circuit with felled trees they built within it houses for themselves and hovels for their cattle. Some of the embankments which surrounded their houses are still in existence. There is one in Essex including a space of about twelve acres, which was formerly in the centre of Epping Forest; another on the Malvern Hills; and another, called *Caer Morus*, in the parish of Cellan, county of Cardigan. It is generally within such intrenchments that remains of buildings are found.

According to Cæsar the ancient Britons exhibited much skill in the art of fortification and the practice of encampment. He describes the capital of Cassivelaunus as admirably defended both by nature and art. Chun Castle is an interesting specimen of an ancient British *dun* or fortress. It consists of two circular walls, having a terrace between them thirty feet in width. The walls are built of rough masses of granite, which are fitted together and piled up without cement. Part of the outer wall is ten feet high and about five feet thick, and it is supposed that it was originally fifteen feet high and twelve feet thick. This wall was surrounded with a ditch nineteen feet in width, and the only entrance to it was towards the south-west. The entrance is six feet wide in the narrowest part, and sixteen in the widest where the walls diverge, and are rounded off on either side. There are indications of steps up

to the level of the area within the castle, and the remains of a wall, which, crossing the terrace from the outer wall, divided the entrance into two parts at its widest end. The inner wall of the castle encloses an area measuring one hundred and seventy-five feet north and south, and one hundred and eighty east and west. Around the wall are circular enclosures, supposed to have formed the habitable parts of the castle; these are generally about twenty feet in diameter, but at the northern side there is a large apartment which measures thirty feet by twenty-six.

Nothing is recorded respecting the internal decorations of the houses or of the furniture of the ancient Britons. Those of private individuals were unadorned and unfurnished; but it is probable that the residences of kings, sages, and chiefs possessed such ornaments as their intercourse, first with the Phœnicians, and afterwards with the Gauls, placed within their reach. Of the handicrafts in which they themselves excelled, that of basket-making or wicker-work, seems to have been the principal; and even the gigantic idols in which they burned the victims at their religious festivals were made of it. Long before the arrival of the Romans it is manifest that the Britons possessed implements required for cutting, smoothing, shaping, and joining of wood. At the period of Cæsar's invasion they had carriages for war as well as for other purposes, which afford evidence of this fact. The Greek and Roman writers mention British wheel-carriages under the six different names of *benna*, *petoritum*, *currus*, *covinus*, *esseda*, and *rheda*. It is probable that each of these terms signified a particular description of carriage, and that the covinus was that which was armed with scythes for the purpose of war, which seems to have been dreaded by the Romans. Cicero, writing to Trebatius, who served under Cæsar, after observing that he heard Britain yielded neither gold nor silver, playfully exhorted his friends to capture one of the essida, and make his way back to Rome with all speed. In another letter he cautioned Trebatius to take care that he was not snatched up and carried off by some driver of one of these vehicles before he was aware.

The ancient Britons seem to have understood the art of manufacturing earthenware; but it was of a rude kind, composed of coarse materials, imperfectly baked, and liable to crack by exposure to the weather. The ornaments of it chiefly consisted of the zigzag pattern, and of lines worked by some pointed instrument with the hand. The vases most frequently found are of three kinds: the large sepulchral urn, which contains the burnt bones of the deceased, and is a truncated cone; the drinking-cup, which was placed at the head and feet of the skeletons, and is of a barrel form, widening at the mouth; and the incense cups, which are more

fantastic in shape and ornaments than the former, and are supposed to have been filled with perfumes and suspended over the funeral pile.

Although possessing rich mines of tin, the Britons were but little acquainted with the art of mining; the only mining known to them being that which consisted in digging a few feet into the earth and collecting what is called "the stream tin," from the modern process of washing and separating the particles of the ore thus lodged, by directing a stream of water over their bed. They separated the metal from the dross by smelting, and, after it was thus purified, they prepared it for market by casting it into ingots in the shape of dice. The lead which they had was procured in like manner from the surface of the soil, or within a few feet under ground.

The Britons seem to have possessed some knowledge of the art of working in metals; for besides moulds for spears, arrows, and axe-heads, frequently found both in England and Ireland, British weapons have been discovered; some of which, being chemically analysed, yield the proportions of one part of tin to six of copper in a spear-head; in an axe-head, one of tin to ten of copper; and in a knife, one of tin to seven and a half of copper.

A more extensive commerce prevailed in Britain than might have been expected from the rude condition of its natives. Strabo says that its exports were gold, silver, iron, corn, cattle, skins, and dogs possessing various excellent qualities: its imports, ivory, bridles, gold chains, cups of amber, drinking-glasses, and a variety of other articles of the like kind; but this author does not mention either lead or tin, which certainly formed the chief articles of export, both to Phœnicia and to Gaul; and gold and silver were not found in the island. Diodorus observes, after describing the manner in which the tin was prepared in Cornwall, "When it has been refined, and cast into ingots, the natives convey it in wheeled carriages over a space, which is dry at low water, to a neighbouring island called Ictis, where the foreign merchants purchase it, and transport it in their ships to the coast of Gaul." Cicero speaks of slaves as a well-known article of British produce; but this trade may have arisen after the Romish invasion, for the Romans were great slave-dealers. After the establishment of the Roman dominion in the country its natural resources were more fully developed, and its foreign trade, both as regards exports and imports, assumed a new aspect. The chief export of Roman Britain was corn; but it supplied the continental parts of the empire with other agricultural produce, as well as grain, and also with natural productions and much cattle. The British horses were highly esteemed by the Romans, both for their beauty and their training; and various Latin poets have celebrated the pre-eminence of the British

dogs above all others for their courage, size, strength, fleetness, and scent. Tacitus mentions that pearls were procured from Britain; and the testimony of ancient authors proves that they were there found in several rivers, as those of the Conway and the Irt in Cumberland. Origen describes them as somewhat cloudy, but affirms they were next in value to those of India.

The genius of the ancient Britons, however, was more warlike than commercial. Their chief property was their cattle and their arms; and, after they had once enjoyed liberty, it was impossible for their princes or chieftains to establish despotic authority over them. Their governments, as well as those of all the Celtic nations, were monarchical, yet free, and the common people seem to have enjoyed more liberty among them than among the nations of Gaul, from whom chiefly they had descended. Each state was divided into factions within itself, and was agitated with jealousy or animosity against the neighbouring states, and home wars were the chief occupation and the principal object of ambition among the people.

In battle the ancient Britons fought with much courage, both on foot, on horseback, and in chariots. For the most part their chariots were armed with scythes, which were driven among their enemies with great fury, for the purpose of disordering their ranks and cutting down all who opposed them. Their horsemen are sometimes represented in a state of nudity, and sometimes in a shaggy clothing.

The appearance of Britain at this early period has been thus aptly described by a poet:—

> "Rudely o'erspread with shadowy forests lay
> Wide trackless wastes that never saw the day;
> Rich fruitful plains, now waving deep with corn,
> Frown'd rough and shaggy with the tangled thorn;
> Through joyless heaths and valleys dark with woods
> Majestic rivers rolled their useless floods.
> Full oft the hunter checked his ardent chase,
> Dreading the latent bog and green morass;
> While, like a blasting mildew, wild were spread
> Blue thickening mists in stagnant marshes bred."

But, although this description is essentially true, there were a few great highways by which communication was maintained between one district and another. These highways are thus enumerated: 1. The *Southern Watling Street*, from Richborough in Kent, by London, Verulam and Weedon, to Wellington and Wroxeter, and from thence to Holyhead. 2. The *Northern Watling Street*, from Chew Green in Scotland, and passing by Manchester and Chester, to Holyhead. 3. The *Ickneild Street*, from Yarmouth to the Land's End, by Royston, Dunstable, Chinnor, Streatley, to

Old Sarum, Exeter, and Totness. 4. *Rykneild Street*, from the Tyne to Boroughbridge, Birmingham, Gloucester, and Caermarthen. 5. The *Ermyn Street*, from Berwick to Pevensey, by Doncaster, Stamford, and London. 6. The *Ikeman Street*, extending from the eastern coast to St. David's. 7. The *Fossway*, from Lincolnshire, by Leicester, Cirencester, Bath, and Ilchester, to Seaton in Devonshire: and 8. The *Saltway*, from Lincolnshire to Droitwich.

If some of these roads had not been previously constructed, Cæsar could scarcely have marched his forces into the interior; but it is evident that the Romans transformed them into those monuments of human art which their remains declare them to have been. Wherever the Romans extended their conquests they turned their attention to road-making; and in Britain it seems probable that they began their operations with the great native high roads, the course of which led to the most important towns throughout the country. These they levelled, paved, and straightened, so as to form lines fit for the movements of large bodies of infantry and cavalry at any season of the year; and they formed also new roads leading from one to another of the many stations which they established in Britain. Some of these lines of military posts were very elaborately constructed. Like the famous Appian Way and others in Italy, they were paved with flat stones cut to a uniform rectangular shape, and closely joined together.

Of the manners and customs of the ancient Britons very little is known. Some authors charge them with cannibalism, and with immoral habits which the rudest tribes in other parts of the world abhor. But, whatever their vices might have been, it is certain that they were not deficient in Pagan virtues, and the intensity of grief which they felt at the death of a friend is exhibited to posterity in the numerous barrows, or burying-places, that exist in the southern division of the island, and the cairns that are found in the northern.

The labour with which the old British barrows were constructed, and the care and ingenuity displayed in their forms, excite the wonder of modern ages. They exhibit great variety both in size and shape; and from these varieties may be conjectured both the period of their construction and the condition of those whom they were designed to commemorate. Thus the immense mounds of earth of an oblong form were probably the earliest graves of the island, and assigned to chieftains; the bowl-shaped barrows, which are plain hemispheric mounds of earth, were of a later period; and the bell-shaped barrow, which is an improvement upon the former, is evidently of a still later date. To these may be added what have been called Druid barrows. These are the most elegant of the whole series of graves; and appear, from the finer bones

and the trinkets they contain, to have been generally the tombs of females. It would appear also, that all these various barrows were reserved for chiefs and personages of rank: the common people were buried in humbler graves, as in other parts of the world.

What ceremonies were used in the interment of the dead among the ancient Britons is unknown. From the contents of the graves, however, we find that, like other rude nations, they buried whatever was accounted most valuable with the body. Weapons of war and the chase, ornaments, articles of jewelry, and the relics of dogs and deer, are found mixed in them with human bones; and these deposits evidently had a prospective view to the existence of the departed in another world. The articles of jewelry and the ornaments were designed for his future adornment; and the weapons of war and the chase for the means of defence, subsistence, and amusement.

The Britons observed a variety of modes in the disposition of the body in its interment. The earliest mode seems to have been to place it in a cist, or coffer, with the legs bent up towards the head. This practice is generally found to have been adopted in the long barrows; and in these there are sometimes found bronze daggers and drinking-cups of rude workmanship. At a later date they laid the body in the grave at full length; and in these graves are found articles of bronze and iron, such as spear-heads, lances, swords, bosses of shields, together with ornaments of chain-work, beads of glass and amber, with other trinkets; all of which indicate a more refined period. In some instances the bodies were inclosed in a strong wooden coffin, riveted with bronze; and in others they were consumed by fire, and the ashes carefully deposited on the floor in the barrow, or within a cist cut in the chalk. A still more classical mode of burial was sometimes practised. When the body had been consumed on the pile, the ashes were collected, and inclosed in a linen sheet, which was secured by a brass pin, and deposited in an urn, in the manner of the classical nations of antiquity.

Though the Britons were a hardy race, the climate of the country rendered a fire indispensable during the season of winter; but before the Romans introduced among them the luxury of a brazier, it was lit on the bare floor of their cottages. They were supplied with fuel by their forests; but they appear to have been acquainted with coal before the arrival of their conquerors; it was gathered upon or near the surface of the earth, and was only made available in places where wood could not easily be obtained.

The diet of the ancient Britons doubtless corresponded with

the poverty of their dwellings and the general simplicity of their lives. Those inhabiting the country opposite the coast of Gaul were indeed well supplied with the means of comfortable living, having cornfields, and pastures covered with flocks and herds; but their more barbarous countrymen in the interior and other parts of the islands must have been in a state of considerable destitution. Cæsar says that the inhabitants of the interior sowed no grain, but lived on the milk and flesh of their flocks and herds. Those who inhabited the north were still more destitute. Under the most favourable circumstances, it is said, that they lived upon the milk of their flocks, wild fruits, and whatever they could procure in hunting; but there were times when they fed upon roots and leaves. At these seasons, when they were in want of natural sustenance, ancient authors relate, that they used a certain composition, of which, when they had eaten about the quantity of a bean, they felt neither hunger nor thirst. This "composition" was probably a drug, by which they deadened the gnawings of hunger, as Indian hunters in similar cases gird a bandage tightly upon their stomachs.

The wild animals upon which the needy natives both of the north and south chiefly subsisted seem to have been the bison, the boar, and the moose-deer; in the procuring of which, however, their efforts and weapons must often have proved unavailing. A difference of opinion exists as to how they cooked this game. While some assert that they ate it raw, after clearing the blood away, by pressing the flesh between flat stones or pieces of timber, others suppose that the carcass was baked in a pit lined with heated flints. It is a remarkable circumstance, that the southern Britons abstained from eating hares and poultry, and the northern Britons from fish, articles of food now considered as luxuries.

Little is known concerning the drinking habits of the Britons. Water was doubtless their principal beverage, but at their social feasts they drank mead or metheglin. They are also said to have used a certain preparation from barley, common to the Gauls and Spaniards, and to the nations of the west and north; it is mentioned by several Latin writers, who express their admiration of the ingenuity of savages in making even water produce intoxication.

In such a rude state of society it can hardly be expected that any kind of learning or scientific knowledge should have existed. In southern Britain, however, there was a class of persons called Druids, who formed a body of national functionaries, entrusted with the superintendence of the instruction of the people, and who were not only the theologians and priests of the nation, but the lawyers, physicians, teachers of youth, moral and natural philoso-

phers, astronomers, mathematicians, architects, musicians, poets, and historians. But the Druids did not diffuse their instruction among the people at large. The genius of their system was similar to that which prevailed in Greece, where philosophers taught that while the few should be instructed, it was necessary to withhold instruction from the multitude. The Druids knew that "knowledge is power," and feared that if they enlightened the whole community, they might lose the ascendency which superior knowledge gave them. They no more thought of communicating knowledge to the multitude than people would now think of lavishing away their estates or their money. The institution of the Druids was not, however, a hereditary oligarchy, for even the chief Druid obtained his place by election; and the Druidical clergy appear to have consisted of persons educated to the profession from the various families of the land. The institution was maintained by constant drafts from the mass of the nation.

Concerning the course of study of the pupils of the Druids little is known. Cæsar states that they sometimes remained twenty years under tuition, and that in the course of that time they learned a great number of verses, and were instructed in theology, and in many things respecting the heavenly bodies and their motion, the magnitude of the universe and the earth, and the "nature of things," by which last phrase must be understood a mixed course of physics and metaphysics. All these instructions were imparted orally, although the Druids were acquainted with the art of writing, and employed it on all common occasions.

As eloquence is an excellent instrument for ruling the public mind, the art was diligently cultivated by the Druids, as well as by the leading personages in the various tribes. Many harangues delivered by Galgacus, Boadicea, and other chiefs, have been preserved by Roman writers; and though they may have adorned them, yet they appear to possess great native merit. Tacitus relates of the Druids of Mona that, when their sanctuary was attacked by Suetonius, they rushed with burning torches in their hands through the ranks of their armed countrymen, and inflamed their courage by pouring forth frenzied prayers. Sometimes they would evince their powers of persuasion by throwing themselves between two bodies of combatants ready to engage, and by the charms of their eloquence appease their mutual rage, and prevail upon them to throw down their arms. In Anglesey, and in other parts of Wales, there are artificial mounts existing, called *Carnedds*, from the tops of which it is supposed the Druids used to deliver their regular instructions and admonitions to the people assembled below.

Poetry and music were cultivated by that particular division of the body of Druids called Bards, whose office it was to celebrate

the praises both of the gods and heroes of their nation in verse. Sometimes their recitations were accompanied by a musical instrument resembling the ancient lyre or modern harp, and their effusions occasionally assumed almost the character of prophecy. Thus it is said, when Boadicea, smarting under the rod of the Romans, sought counsel of the gods of her country, the Druid to whom she applied pronounced the destruction of Rome, as he swept the chords

"Of his sweet but awful lyre."

The medicine of the Druids was a medley of theology, astrology, divination, and magic. Vegetable productions; as the mistletoe, the selago, supposed to be a species of hedge hyssop, the samolus, or marshwort, and vervain were used; but little reliance was placed by the Druidical physicians upon the natural properties of these plants, everything depended upon the mode in which they had been gathered: thus some were to be cut from their stalks with an instrument of iron; some were to be plucked by the hand; some were to be gathered with the left, and others with the right hand; some were to be obtained when the sun was shining, and others by moonlight; and some were to be gathered in the absence of both sun and moon, and under the ascendency of some particular star. The persons who gathered these plants were sometimes to be attired in white; at others they were to go barefooted; and at others fasting. It is probable that these minute formalities were enjoined for the double purpose of impressing a sanctity on the art of healing, and for affording a shelter for the credit of the drug and the doctor in cases where they failed to effect a cure.

The science of astronomy among the Druids seems to have sprung out of the national religion, at all events, it was blended with their theology; and hence some have endeavoured to discover an astronomical meaning in the disposition of the stones of Stonehenge and Abury, as well as in other remains of antiquity supposed to have been Druidical temples. The Irish round towers, which have generally four openings or windows facing the four cardinal points, are also supposed to have served the twofold purpose of sacred or emblematical monuments and of watch-towers of the heavens. The science of astronomy seems to have been chiefly cultivated by the Druids, as being imagined to afford them the means of looking into futurity; but it was also studied for the regulation of various annual festivals. Pliny records that the Druids began the reckoning of their years, months, and great cycle, which was a period of thirty years, from the sixth day of the moon. Diodorus Siculus, in his description of the wonders of the Hyperborean Isle,—Britain or Ireland,—speaks of the cycle of nineteen

years, called the cycle of the moon, in such a manner as to imply that it was the great regulator of the national religious calendar. He says: "The Hyperboreans believe that Apollo descends to their isle at the end of every nineteen years, playing upon his harp, and singing and dancing all the night, from the vernal equinox to the rising of the Pleiades, as if rejoicing in the honours paid him by his votaries."

It has been supposed by some, that their observation of the heavenly bodies was assisted by optical instruments; and that they had an idea of the shape of the moon is evident, but this may have been transmitted by rumour from other countries. A curious relic, discovered in Ireland, has been thought to be an ancient Celtic astronomical instrument. "It is composed of bronze, and is a circle, the outside edge of which represents the moon's orbit, having on it eight rings, representing the different phases of the moon. In the inside of this circle is another fixed on an axis, in the line of the inclination of the poles, on which this, which represents the earth, traverses."* This instrument seems to have been in common use to teach the science of astronomy. There are remains of several circles of ancient stones in existence, both in Wales and Ireland, which still bear the name of the Astronomical Circles, and are supposed to mark the sites of Druidical seminaries for instruction in astronomy.

The function which procured the Druids the highest honour among the people was that which they discharged as judges; for by the Druids all disputes or litigations were determined. If any theft or murder were committed, or if any difference arose about an inheritance or the boundaries of the land, the decision rested with them. But even in this capacity religion was the instrument they used to enforce their sentences. If any one refused submission, they interdicted him from being present at the sacrifices; and to be interdicted by the Druids was a penalty as severe as being excommunicated by the Romish Church in modern times: the person who incurred this punishment was considered impious and accursed; he was shunned by every one, and excluded from all offices of honour, and even from the protection of the law.

The chief office of the Druids was that of presiding over sacred things, of performing all public and private sacrifices and of directing all religious ceremonies. Their rites, often of a very evil character, were performed in the midst of oak groves, which they chose for their residence; and the poet Lucan alludes to this usage in a celebrated passage on the Druids and the doctrines of their religion, which has been translated thus: —

* Sir W. Betham's description.

"The Druids now, while arms are heard no more,
Old mysteries and barbarous rites restore;
A tribe who singular religion love,
And haunt the lonely covert of the grove.
To these, and these, of all mankind alone,
The gods are sure reveal'd, or sure unknown.
If dying mortals' dooms they sing aright,
No ghosts descend to dwell in dreadful night;
No parting souls to grizzly Pluto go,
Nor seek the dreary, silent shades below;
But forth they fly, immortal in their kind,
And other bodies in new worlds they find.
Thus life for ever runs its endless race,
And, like a line, death but divides the space:
A stop which can but for a moment last;
A point between the future and the past.
Thrice happy they beneath their northern skies
Who that worst fear, the fear of death, despise.
Hence they no cares for this frail being feel,
But rush undaunted on the pointed steel;
Provoke approaching fate, and bravely scorn
To spare that life which must so soon return."

ROWE'S *Lucan.*

Many superstitions connected with the oak existed among the Druids, the most remarkable of which was the reverence they paid to the parasitical plant called the mistletoe when it was found growing on that tree. The ceremony of gathering this plant, like all the other sacred solemnities of the Druids, was performed on the sixth day of the moon, and probably as near to the 10th of March, which was their New Year's day, as this rule would permit. Whenever it was found on the oak, which very rarely happened, a procession was made to it on the sacred day with great form and pomp. Two white bulls were first bound to the oak by their horns, and then a Druid, clothed in white, mounted the tree, and cut the mistletoe with a knife of gold; it was received in the white robe of another Druid, standing on the ground, and this ceremony was followed by the sacrifice of victims and festive rejoicings.

Pliny says that the Druids believed that God loved the oak above all other trees; that everything growing upon that tree came from heaven; and that nothing is more sacred than the mistletoe springing from it. The idea of the sacredness of the mistletoe, however, was not peculiar to the Druids; it formed a part of the religion of the ancients, to which Virgil, who was acquainted with the forms of old creeds, alludes in his description of the golden branch that Æneas had to pluck as a passport to the lower regions: —

"As in the woods, beneath mid-winter's snow,
Shoots from the oak the fresh-leaved mistletoe,
Girding the dark stem with its saffron glow:
So sprang the bright gold from the dusky rind;
So the leaf rustled in the fanning wind."

DRYDEN

The Druidical priesthood was divided into three classes: the Druids, who were the philosophers and theologians; the Ouates, or Vates, who sacrificed, and pretended to foretel events; and the Bards, who were poets and musicians, and who preserved what little historical knowledge existed. The official dress of the Druid was a white flowing robe; the Vates wore a dress of light green; and the Bards were clothed in sky-blue, which was regarded as a symbol of peace. Each order, it appears, carried a wand or staff, and had what was called a Druid's egg hung about their necks enclosed in gold: they also wore the hair of their heads short and their beards long; while the common people wore long hair and shaved their beards, with the exception of the upper lip.

The historical and philosophical knowledge of the Druids was preserved in rude verses committed to memory. These verses amounted to many thousands, and the form in which they were composed was the Triad, of which the following is an example: —

"Eiry mynydd, glas gwddfyd
Naturiaith, fawb a 'i dilyd —
Ni bydd doeth yn hir mewn llid."

This Triad has been thus translated: —

"'Mid the snow green plants arise:
All are bound by nature's ties;
Anger dwells not with the wise."

The Bardic traditions moulded into this form of verse were annually recited in public, and it is probable that they were thus better preserved from alteration and interpolation than they could have been by transcription, the art of printing being wholly unknown.

The Druids believed in one God; but this doctrine was esoteric or secret, being taught only to the members of their own order. The multitude were instructed in the belief of many gods, and in the worship of the sun, the moon, the stars, the elements of fire and water, and other deities, some of whom answered to those of the classical nations of antiquity: so many were their gods, eventually, that it might be said of them, as it was said of the gods of Greece, "Nobody would undertake to say how many there were not."

In the earliest ages of Druidism there were neither covered temples nor sculptured images of the gods. It is said indeed, that Jupiter was represented by a lofty oak and Mercury by a cube; but these must be considered not as attempts to imitate the bodily forms of the gods, but only as emblematic illustrations of their attributes. At a later period material configurations of the objects of worship were formed in great numbers; representations of some of which (as Hesus, answering to Mars, the god of war)

are still in existence. Gildas relates that the ancient Britons had a greater number of gods than the Egyptians themselves, there being scarcely a lake, mountain, or wood without its peculiar divinity.

Concerning the peculiar forms of Druidical worship little is known. Pliny merely records, that in offering sacrifice the officiating priest was wont to pray to the divinity for a blessing on the people, and that at some sacred rites the women went naked, having their flesh stained with the dark juice of the *woad*.

Many of the rites of the Druids were polluted by cruelty. They offered up human sacrifices at the shrines of their deities, and their victims had to endure the most torturing deaths. Sometimes they were roasted, with cattle and beasts, in a large image of wicker-work; at others they were crucified, or shot to death with arrows: and while these sacrifices were offered to senseless deities songs and musical instruments were employed to drown the cries of the sufferers. All this marks ferocity of character in the ancient Britons.

The doctrines of the Druids contained a mixture of error and truth. They taught the immortality of the soul, but asserted that it passed at death from one body to another and not either to a place of endless happiness or unalterable woe. This doctrine was inculcated by many ancient philosophers: it is believed at this day in the East, and is called the doctrine of the transmigration of souls.

The authority which the Druids maintained over the people was enforced by a very singular custom. At the commencement of winter, on a certain day, every family in Britain was compelled to extinguish its fires and to pass the night in cold and darkness. On the following day an offering was carried to the nearest Druid, and fire procured from the consecrated altar. No evasion was allowed; and it was supposed by the people that the deities, by whom they were taught to believe that all the objects of creation were tenanted, would give information of every act of disobedience to the Druids.

The Druidical hierarchy had the regulation and control of the most important part of the internal affairs of the community. If it was not superior to the civil power, it was distinctly another power, and by no means secondary to it; and one Druid, set over the whole body, and called the Arch-Druid, was elected to his place of supreme authority by the suffrages of the rest; just as the pontiff of Rome is elected by the cardinals in conclave. Sometimes, if there was no single individual whose pre-eminence prevented all competition for the vacant dignity, the struggle for the primacy gave rise to a contest of arms. As the Druids enjoyed both exemp-

tion from military service and freedom from all other public burdens, numbers of persons came of their own accord to be trained up in their discipline, and others were sent by their parents and relations.

The Druidical system as established in Britain assumes the appearance of something not native, but superinduced by foreign importation upon the native barbarism. It is probable that much of it was introduced by the Phœnician settlers, and at a later period by the Romans; for, like the Greeks of old, the Druids collected gods and creeds from other countries. There are many circumstances connected with their religion which lead to the belief that it was of patriarchal origin. Thus the superstitious reverence for the oak appears to bear some analogy to the holier feeling which led Abraham to erect his tent and his altar beneath the shadows of a tree at Mamre. Thus also the circles of stones mentioned as Druidical places of worship resemble in some respects the altar and pillars erected by Moses under Mount Sinai, and the piles of great stones at Gilgal and Mount Ebal. Hence Druidism, divested of its later cruel practices, has been described rather as a degenerate kind of patriarchal religion, than as directly opposed to it, like the heathen rites of Greece and Rome.

The poet Wordsworth speaks thus of it in one of his ecclesiastical sonnets:—

> "Screams round the Arch-Druid's brow the seamew, white
> As Menai's foam; and toward the mystic ring,
> Where augurs stand, the future questioning,
> Slowly the cormorant aims her heavy flight,
> Portending ruin to each baleful rite,
> That, in the lapse of ages, hath crept o'er
> Diluvian truths and patriarchal lore."

It was long after the Roman conquest before Druidism could be entirely eradicated, and the practice of its worship subsisted for centuries after the Druids as an order of priesthood were extinct. In the annals of the sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries there are numerous edicts of emperors and canons of councils against the worship of the sun, moon, rivers, lakes, and trees; and even at the present day the remembrance of some practices of the old superstition is preserved in popular sports, pastimes, and anniversary usages. The ceremonies of All-Hallow-mass, the bonfires of May-day, the virtues attributed to the mistletoe, and various village customs, still point to the days of Druidism, and evince that the impression of its dark ritual has not been obliterated from the popular imagination by the lapse of nearly two thousand years. So difficult is it to root out errors promulgated among the people at large when once they become popular! Although they may be rendered nugatory by the light of Christianity, they are seldom wholly forgotten.

CHAP. II.

THE ROMAN INVASION.

The Romans had long been extending their conquests through the then known world before they had even heard of Britain. One of the richest parts of Asia was theirs; theirs also were the best portions of Africa and the greatest part of Europe; and Julius Cæsar had conquered Gaul, or France, from the shores of which he descried some of the high white cliffs surrounding the "sea-girt isle," when he resolved to annex Britain likewise to the Roman empire.

Several motives probably induced Cæsar to undertake the conquest of Britain. Its disjunction from the rest of the world, and the stormy but narrow sea that flows between this country and Rome, gave a bold and romantic character to the enterprise that might have inflamed his ambition. Then, again, Britain was inhabited by a people of the same race as the Gauls, who during his arduous campaigns on the Continent had fought against him under the banners of their kindred, and thus excited his revenge. Moreover, Britain seems to have been considered a sort of Holy Land by the Celtic nations, and the great centre and stronghold of the Druids, the revered priesthood of an iron superstition that bound men and tribes and nations together, and inflamed them even more than patriotism against the Roman conquerors. It must be remembered, likewise, that Cæsar, in common with the whole Roman nation, bore an implacable hatred towards the Gaulish race, in consequence of their having been a scourge to Rome for centuries. From the days of the elder Tarquin they had occasionally broken through the barrier of the Alps, and carried fire and sword into the home territories of the republic; and the war that the Gauls at this period were carrying on with Cæsar was only a part of the long contest, which did not terminate till the mighty empire was overthrown in the fifth century of our era. Hence the Britons, as the active allies of the Gauls, could not expect to escape sharing in the deadly conflict. Apart from these motives, Cæsar may have had others; such as his desire of dazzling his countrymen, and of seeming to be absorbed by objects remote from internal ambition by expeditions against a new world; or of furnishing a pretence for prolonging his command in the province of Gaul, and keeping up an army devoted to his interest, till the time should arrive for the attack upon the

liberty of Rome, which he had long meditated. Finally, Cæsar may have invaded Britain in order to obtain possession of its valuable productions; for he could not have been ignorant of the fact that British lead and tin had been anciently imported into the Mediterranean by the Phœnicians, and that Massilia, or Marseilles, was still carrying on a trade in these articles. All these motives seem to have weighed with Cæsar in his invasion of Britain; but his ruling motive was doubtless a love of conquest and glory; for he was an ambitious man, who no sooner subdued one nation than he turned his thoughts to the subjugation of others.

It was in the year B.C. 55 that Cæsar resolved to cross the British Channel. According to his own account, he did not then design to attempt the conquest, but simply to take a view of the island, learn the nature of its inhabitants, and survey the coast, harbours, and landing-places. Before he sailed he sent Volusenus forward with a single galley, to obtain some knowledge of these things; but his commander appears to have rendered him but little service, for he merely took a distant view of the British coast, and on the fifth day of his expedition returned to head-quarters. With such information as he had, however, Cæsar embarked, with about 12,000 men, from Portus Itius, or Witstand, between Calais and Boulogne: the cavalry were detained by contrary winds at a port about eight miles off; but Cæsar left orders for them to sail as soon as the weather permitted.

Cæsar reached the British coasts near Dover on the 26th of August. Before he had set sail many of the states, warned of the coming danger by some merchants, had sent over ambassadors to him, with an offer of hostages and submission to the Roman authority. He received these ambassadors with kindness, exhorting them to continue in the same pacific intentions, and then sent them back to their own country, dispatching with them Cominus, a Gaul, in whose virtue, wisdom, and fidelity he placed great confidence, and whom he charged to visit as many of the British states as he could, and persuade them to enter into an alliance with the Romans. But the submission the Britons had offered was intended only to retard invasion; and when they found, on the return of the ambassadors, that Cæsar still intended to visit Britain, they made Cominus, his envoy, prisoner, and prepared for their defence. When the Romans looked from their ships, therefore, to the steep white cliffs above them, they saw them covered with armed Britons.

Finding that the spot to which he had sailed was not convenient for landing in the very face of the enemy, Cæsar proceeded about seven miles further along the coast, and prepared to land his forces on an open flat shore between Walmer Castle and

Sandwich. His motions, however, were watched by the Britons, who, sending their cavalry and war-chariots before them, marched rapidly on with their main force to oppose his landing. The Roman soldiers for some time hesitated to leave their ships, but at length the standard-bearer of the tenth legion, having besought the gods of Rome that what he was about to do might prove fortunate for the legion, exclaimed, "Follow me, Romans, unless you will give up your eagle to the enemy! I at least will do my duty to the republic and our general!" As he spoke he leaped into the sea, and dashed with his ensign among the enemy's ranks, whither he was followed by his fellow-soldiers. The two armies were for a long time mixed in combat; but at length the Britons were compelled to retreat; though, as the cavalry of Cæsar had not yet arrived, he could not pursue them, and his victory was therefore not complete.

Thus defeated, the British tribes sought the advantages of a hollow peace. They offered hostages and an entire submission to Cæsar, at the same time liberating Cominus; and the conqueror, after reproaching them for sending ambassadors into Gaul to sue for peace, and then making war upon him *without any just cause*, forgave them, and ordered them to send a number of hostages to his camp, as security for their future good behaviour. Some of these hostages were delivered and others were promised, while the several chiefs came to Cæsar's camp to offer allegiance and negotiate or intrigue for their own separate interests. Their forces seemed to be disbanded; but an event occurred which emboldened the Britons to reassemble them, in order to contest the victory with the conqueror.

On the very day that peace was concluded between Cæsar and the British chiefs the Roman cavalry were enabled to quit their port on the coast of Gaul. They crossed the Channel safely; but when they neared the British coast, and came within view of Cæsar's camp, they were dispersed by a tempest and driven back to the port whence they had sailed. This disaster spread a general consternation through the camp, for there were no other vessels to carry the troops back, and Cæsar had made no preparations for wintering in Britain. The Britons also saw the extent of Cæsar's calamity, and devised means to profit by it. Having previously held secret consultations among themselves, the chiefs retired from Cæsar's camp by degrees, and began to re-assemble their troops and make other preparations, but without doing anything to awaken the suspicions of the Romans, some of them remaining about in the country, and going and coming freely to the Roman quarters. They then gathered in their harvest everywhere except in one field, where they left the corn still standing, and, as they

had probably foreseen, the Romans immediately proceeded to cut it down for themselves.

It appears that one-half of the troops Cæsar had in Britain were sent on this duty. This was a great oversight on the part of the Roman commander, for while his cohorts were scattered about the fields and busy with their reaping, the Britons suddenly rushed upon them from an ambuscade, and attacked them with great advantage.

The sentinels stationed at the camp gates noticed a great cloud of dust arising in that direction, and sent word of it to Cæsar, who immediately hastened to the spot with some of his cohorts, leaving orders for the rest to follow. When he arrived he found that his legion was surrounded on all sides by the cavalry and war-chariots of the Britons, and had already suffered considerable loss; but he succeeded in bringing off the remainder, with which he withdrew to his fortified camp.

Emboldened by this partial success, the British force of horse and foot, being re-inforced from all parts, gradually drew round the camp of Cæsar. They meditated attacking him; but Cæsar, anticipating their design, marshalled his legions outside of the camp, and seizing a favourable opportunity, fell upon them and put them to flight. The Romans pursued the fugitives, slaughtering many of them, and setting fire to some houses and villages, after which they returned to their camp.

The Britons now again sued for peace, which Cæsar, being anxious to return to Gaul as soon as possible, granted. His conditions were that the number of hostages should be doubled; but he did not wait to receive them, for a fair wind springing up, he set sail at midnight, and arrived safely in Gaul. One or two British states sent their hostages, and the breach of treaty which the rest committed gave Cæsar a plea of justification for a second invasion in the next year, B.C. 54.

Cæsar spent the winter in building and equipping his fleet. When he embarked he had 800 vessels of different classes, and these carried five legions and 2000 cavalry, or about 32,000 men. He set sail from the same Portus Itius, and disembarked apparently on the same flat between Walmer Castle and Sandwich where he had landed the year before. No enemy appeared on the beach to oppose him, but the Britons were encamped at some distance with an evident determination to contest the possession of their island with the invader. They were well posted on some rising ground behind a river, probably the Stour near Canterbury; the passage of which river was gallantly disputed by the confederate army with their cavalry and chariots. The Britons,

however, were repulsed by the Roman horse, and they retreated towards the woods to a place strongly fortified by nature and art, where strong barricades of felled trees were laid upon one another so as to secure the avenues. But this stronghold was taken by the soldiers of the seventh legion, who carried it by means of a mound of earth cast up in front of it, and then drove the Britons from the cover of the woods. The evening closed on their retreat; but the Roman eagles were scarcely displayed the following morning, and the trumpets had hardly sounded the advance, when intelligence was brought that the fleet had been nearly all driven on the shore and wrecked during the night. On repairing to the coast Cæsar found that forty of his ships were lost, and the rest so damaged as to be scarcely susceptible of repair. He immediately, however, set all his carpenters to work, wrote for more artisans from Gaul, and ordered the legions stationed on that coast to build as many new ships as they could. Having by great exertion repaired his loss and caused all his fleet to be drawn upon dry land and enclosed within his fortified camp, he again marched in pursuit of the enemy. In his absence the British chiefs had appointed Cassivelaunus as supreme commander of their forces, and Cæsar found him well posted at or near to the scene of the last battle. Cassivelaunus had a reputation for skill and bravery, and on this occasion he well sustained it. Without waiting to be attacked he boldly charged the Roman cavalry with his horse, supported by his chariots; and though Cæsar says that he drove the Britons back to their woods and their hills with great slaughter, it is evident that the victory he gained was not complete, and soon after the British gave the Romans a severe check. Sallying from the wood, they cut up the Roman advanced guard; and when two cohorts were sent to their aid, the Britons charged them in separate parties, routed them, and then retired without loss. Cæsar was obliged to confess that his heavy-armed legions were not always a match for the active and light-armed Britons. But these successes of the Britons perhaps led to their overthrow; for, venturing a general engagement on the following day, they were defeated, and the auxiliary troops which had joined the standard of Cassivelaunus returned to their homes.

Cassivelaunus now retired for the defence of his own territory beyond the Thames, whither he was pursued by the Romans; but, on reaching the right bank of the river at Coway Stakes near Chertsey, where it was considered fordable, Cæsar found that Cassivelaunus had caused sharp stakes to be driven into the bed of the stream, and had lined the opposite shore with armed men. The energy and valour of Cæsar, however, overcame all difficulties, and he passed the river and entirely defeated the enemy. Cassivelaunus indeed, defeated as he was, still contrived to harass the Romans

with a force of no less than 4000 war-chariots; but the want of union among themselves, which has so often proved fatal to nations contending for their liberty, soon appeared among the petty states into which the island was divided, and frustrated all the efforts of this brave chief to resist the invaders. Mandubratius, the chief of the Trinobantes, who inhabited Essex and Middlesex, even deserted his own countrymen and joined the Romans. After this other tribes sent in their submission, and some of them traitorously led Cæsar to the capital of Cassivelaunus, supposed to have been situated near the site of St. Albans, on the spot where the flourishing Roman colony of Verulamium arose many years after.

This capital, as it has been called, was captured, and on the news of this last reverse Cassivelaunus sent ambassadors to sue for peace, which was granted by Cæsar on such easy terms that we may imagine he was rather tired of the war, though he says himself that he wished to return to Gaul in order to quell the insurrections that had taken place in that country. The terms of the peace were that hostages should be given and a yearly tribute paid to the Romans; and having received the hostages, Cæsar retired to the sea-coast and embarked again for Gaul. He had not conquered the country, for he had not erected a single fort, nor did he leave one cohort behind him to secure the ground he had gained in the island.

After the departure of Cæsar Britain was left undisturbed by foreign arms for nearly a hundred years. Little is known of what passed in it during that period; but it seems clear that, while internal wars continued to be waged, the people had made great advances in civilisation, those especially who occupied the maritime parts opposite the coast of Gaul. The disunion of the Britons, their constant dissensions, and their want of a system of defence, laid them open to the attacks of their enemies whenever they should think fit to renew the struggle. The fatal civil wars among themselves for a time checked the ambition of the Romans for foreign conquest; but at length, in the ninety-seventh year after Cæsar's expedition (A. D. 43), the Emperor Claudius resolved to seize the island. Aulus Plautius, a skilful commander, was sent with a large army to invade it, and the Britons, who had made no preparation, at first offered no resistance. Subsequently they took the field under Caractacus and Togudumnus; but they were defeated in the inland country, and Aulus Plautius followed up his victories to the other side of the River Severn. After sustaining another defeat on its right bank, the Britons retreated eastward, to some marshes on the Thames, where, availing themselves of the nature of the ground, they made a desperate stand, and caused the Romans great loss. Plautius, seeing their determined spirit, retreated to

the south of the Thames, where he was joined by the Emperor Claudius. Without fighting any battles he accompanied his army on its advance to the north of the Thames, and was present at the capture of Camalodunum, now Colchester, the capital of the Trinobantes; after which he returned to Rome. Plautius was left to pursue the conquest of the country, and while he prosecuted an undecisive warfare with the inland Britons, Vespasian, his second in command, was employed in subduing Vectis, or the Isle of Wight, and the maritime states on the southern and eastern coasts. That part of the island which lies to the south of the Thames was taken, and also a narrow strip on the left bank of that river; but when Plautius was recalled to Rome these territories were overrun and thrown into confusion by the Britons.

Plautius was succeeded by Ostorius Scapela (A. D. 50.) at a time when the cause of the Romans seemed almost hopeless. Their allies were falling from them, the unsubdued states were becoming more bold, and the people they had held in subjection were ripe for revolt. Ostorius, however, proved equal to the emergency. Although it was midwinter when he arrived, he put himself at the head of his forces, and the Britons, taken by surprise, were defeated with great loss. After this victory Ostorius employed himself in erecting fortresses along the banks of the Severn and the Avon in Warwickshire, to secure his possessions of the countries east and south of those rivers. And it was by the gradual advance of such lines of fortresses that the Romans at length brought the whole of England south of the Tyne under subjection.

Ostorius also adopted the cautious policy of disarming all the Britons within the line of forts whom he suspected. But this measure drove the Iceni, a tribe, supposed to have dwelt in Norfolk and Suffolk, into open revolt. Having formed a league with their neighbours, they chose their ground for a decisive battle; but, though they fought obstinately, they were defeated. Ostorius subsequently conquered the Cangi, and subdued a rebellion among the Brigantes, who occupied Yorkshire, with parts of Lancashire, and other adjacent counties. Having subdued these, he marched rapidly against the Silures,—the inhabitants of South Wales,—who were the fiercest enemies the Romans ever had to encounter in South Britain. These people were under the command of Caractacus, whose known valour and skill in the stratagems of war increased their natural courage. This chief retired to the territory of the Ordovices, where he resolved to wait firmly the issue of battle. The scene of the action is supposed to have been at the foot of a lofty hill in Shropshire, near to the confluence of the rivers Colne and Tame. As the Romans approached, the chieftains of the confederated British clans rushed along the ranks, exhorting their men, and

Caractacus exclaimed, "This day must decide the fate of Britain! The era of liberty or bondage begins from this hour! Remember your brave ancestors, who drove Cæsar from their shores and preserved their freedom, their property, and the persons and honours of their wives and children." Ostorius was astonished at the arrangements of the British chief and the spirit of the Britons; but his numbers, discipline, and superior arms once more ensured him the victory. Having neither breast-plates nor helmets, the Britons could not withstand the Roman swords and spears, and after a fearful carnage they were routed. Caractacus escaped from the field of battle; but, having taken refuge with his stepmother Cartismandua, Queen of the Brigantes, that heartless woman caused him to be put in chains and delivered up to the Romans; and from the camp of Ostorius he was carried, with his wife and his family, to the foot of the throne of Claudius.

The arrival of a barbarian prince who for nine years had withstood the conquerors of the world was considered a fit subject for a triumph. All Rome, all Italy, were impatient to gaze on the indomitable Briton; and his dignified deportment, as he passed through the throng, gained for him universal respect. Even in the presence of Claudius he maintained a lofty bearing; and while his friends and family implored mercy, he showed himself superior to misfortune. His speech was manly, his countenance unaltered: he was great and dignified, even in his ruin. His magnanimous behaviour seems to have attracted the admiration of the Romans, and to have procured him milder treatment than was usually bestowed on captive princes; for his chains, and those of his family, were instantly struck off.

Though defeated, the Silures were not conquered; but they continually attacked and harassed the Romans, till at length Ostorius sunk under the fatigue and vexation, and expired, to the great joy of the Britons, who boasted that the war had brought him to his grave.

Under Aulus Didius and Veranius, the immediate successors of Ostorius, the Roman power in Britain remained stationary. During this period, indeed, the Emperor Nero, who had succeeded his father Claudius, entertained the thought of withdrawing his troops from the island; but the next governor Paulinus Suetonius, who arrived in Britain A.D. 59, revived the spirit of the conquerors. Suetonius captured the island of Mona, now Anglesea, which was the chief seat of the Druids, and the refuge of the defeated British warriors and the disaffected generally: but, while he was engaged in securing the sacred island, events took place which went far to compromise the safety of the entire empire of the Romans in Britain. Exasperated at his attack on the Druids and

the groves of Mona, which he had cut down, and at the manner in which the Romans treated them generally, the Britons flew to arms. One circumstance especially incited them to revolt. Prasutagus, King of the Iceni, had recently died, leaving his possessions to be ruled jointly by the Romans and his queen Boadicea. The Romans, however, were not satisfied with the half of his dominions; they seized the whole; and when Boadicea remonstrated, Catus, the procurator, caused her to be scourged, subjected her daughters to the grossest treatment, and caused the relations of her deceased husband to be reduced to slavery. Boadicea was a woman of no common character; she escaped from the Romans, and made known her wrongs, and an extensive armed league was formed, over which she assumed the supreme command. Thirsting for revenge, she pressed forward into the Roman provinces; destroyed several small divisions of the Roman forces; captured and reduced to ashes the cities of Camalodunum, London, and Verulamium, and slaughtered in a few days 70,000 of her enemies, often with circumstances of great cruelty. At the head of a numerous host, Boadicea now approached the Roman forces under Suetonius, who had hastened from the western part of Britain to arrest her progress, and had posted himself in a strong position near Verulamium. The Romans were rendered desperate by the ferocity which Boadicea displayed, and their courage and discipline once more prevailed. The Britons were defeated with great loss, and Boadicea after the battle killed herself in despair. She is graphically described by an old writer as having been "of stature big and tall; of visage grim and stern; harsh of voice; her hair of a bright colour, flowing down to her hips; and wearing a plaited garment of divers colours, with a great golden chain; and, buttoned over all, a thick robe."

Suetonius, after he had committed an indiscriminate massacre of the Britons, was recalled, and, notwithstanding his victories, his immediate successors were compelled to stand on the defensive. At length, about A D. 75, the Romans under Julius Frontinus recommenced their forward movements by subduing the Silures. This general was succeeded, A.D. 78, by Agricola, who was skilled in the arts of both peace and war, and who completed the conquest of Britain. In the course of seven campaigns he subdued the northern districts, constructed a line of forts between the Frith of Forth and the Clyde, and penetrated even further, defeating his opponents on the Grampian hills.

Even while Agricola was at war with the Britons he sought to improve their manners. He endeavoured to subdue their fierceness and change their erratic disposition by teaching them some of the useful arts, and introducing some of the luxuries of civilised life. He persuaded them to settle in towns, to build comfortable

dwelling-houses, and to erect halls and temples. It was a part of his policy, also, to establish a system of education, and to give the sons of the leading British chiefs a knowledge of polite letters. By degrees the Britons began to cultivate the beauties of the Roman language, to wear the Roman toga, and to indulge in the luxuries of baths, porticos, and elegant banquets; and one advantage at least resulted from his influence,—Druidism was extirpated, and the last of its ministers driven from the blood-stained land.

After the conquests of Agricola, during a period of thirty years, Britain remained so tranquil, that scarcely a single mention is made of it in the Roman annals; and the Britons seem to have begun to consider the Romans rather as their protectors and teachers than as their persecutors. In the reign of Hadrian, however, the Romans were attacked all along their northern frontiers by the Caledonians, and the whole state of the island became such as to demand that emperor's presence. Hadrian visited Britain A. D. 121, when the conquests of Agricola north of the Tyne and Solway were lost, and his advanced line of forts between the Forth and the Clyde destroyed. Without either resigning or reconquering all that territory, Hadrian contented himself with raising a new rampart between the Solway Frith and the German Ocean; and it would have been wise in the Romans to have kept to this line, but in the following reign of Antoninus Pius, A. D. 138, the governor of Britain, Lollius Urbicus, advanced from it, and again fixed the Roman frontier at the isthmus between the Clyde and Forth. It was the boast of the Romans that this fortified line would cover and protect all the fertile territories of the south, and drive the enemy back into a country barren and barbarous like themselves. In the reign of Commodus, A. D. 183, however, the northern tribes again broke through this barrier, and the district became the scene of several sanguinary battles with the Romans. About the same time also a mutinous spirit declared itself among the legions in Britain, and symptoms were everywhere seen of that decline in discipline which led to the dissolution of the Roman empire. These wars continued for many years, and cost the lives of thousands of the civilised British subjects of Rome.

In the year A. D. 207 the Emperor Severus led an army against the northern barbarians, and drove them back; but not without terrible suffering and the loss of 50,000 men,—a loss that was principally occasioned by the incessant labour they were subjected to in cutting down forests, draining morasses and otherwise forcing their way through a pathless wilderness. He then erected near the rampart of Hadrian a stone wall, 12 feet high, 8 feet thick, with 81 castles, above 300 smaller towers, and a broad deep ditch.

Scarcely had he finished this great work, however, when the northern tribes recommenced hostilities, and Severus, vowing their extermination, again marched northward; but he was taken ill, and died at York (then called Eboracum), in the beginning of the year 211.

Caracalla, his son and successor, made peace with the Caledonians, formally ceding to them the debatable ground between the Solway and Tyne, and the Friths of Clyde and Forth; after which he returned to Rome.

Few particulars have been preserved in history concerning what passed in Britain for the next seventy years, but from some passages of ancient writers we may infer that it had become valuable as a province of the Roman empire. The produce of the mines it appears was considerable, large sums were sent from it annually as taxes, great numbers of Britons served in the Roman armies, the country was generally tranquil, and the inhabitants were making rapid progress in the arts of civilised life.

When Britain re-appears in the annals of history it is as the scene of a new enterprise. In A.D. 228 Scandinavian and Saxon pirates began to ravage her coasts. At this time Diocletian and Maximian swayed the Roman empire, and to repress these marauders the emperors appointed Carausius, a Menapian, to the command of a strong fleet in the British Channel. Carausius defeated the pirates of the Baltic; but he was soon accused of collusion with the enemy, and the emperors sent orders from Rome to put him to death. On discovering this, Carausius took refuge with his fleet in Britain, where the legions rallied round his victorious standard, and bestowed upon him the imperial diadem. The joint Emperors of Rome attempted to reduce him to obedience, but they were defeated, and compelled to purchase peace by conceding to him the government of Britain, Boulogne, and the adjacent coasts of Gaul, together with the title of emperor. Under the reign of Carausius Britain figured as a great naval power. He built ships of war, manned them in part with Scandinavian and Saxon pirates, and remaining absolute master of the Channel; his fleets swept the seas from the mouths of the Rhine to the Straits of Gibraltar. But his reign was brief. He was murdered at Eboracum, or York, in the year 297, by Allectus, a Briton, who succeeded to his insular empire.

Allectus reigned about three years, when he was defeated and slain by an officer of Constantius Chlorus, who had succeeded to the Roman empire on the resignation of Diocletian and Maximian. Constantius Chlorus died in A.D. 306, at Eboracum, and his son Constantine, afterwards called the Great, began his reign at that place. Constantine waged a doubtful war north of the wall

of Severus, after which he left the island, taking with him a great number of British youths as recruits for his army; and from this time, to the death of Constantine in 337, Britain seems again to have enjoyed tranquillity.

The Roman empire was now fast decaying, and the removal of its capital from Rome to Constantinople had its effects on the remote province of Britain. Under the immediate successors of Constantine, while the Frank and Saxon pirates ravaged the southern coasts, the Picts, Scots, and Attacots began to harass the northern provinces and to defy the wall of stone erected by Severus. In the year 367 it is said that the Picts and Scots pillaged Augusta, or the city of London, and carried off its inhabitants as slaves. They were in possession of that city when Theodosius arrived as governor of Britain; but he compelled them to retreat, and to relinquish the prisoners and booty they had captured. Theodosius remained in Britain two years, and did much towards restoring it to a state of prosperity. At this period, indeed, agriculture was so flourishing in Britain, that it supplied the Continent with large quantities of corn; its mines of lead and tin were also worked to a great extent, and even its chalk was exported.

In 382, by one of the changes which were now becoming frequent, Maximus, the governor of Britain, assumed the title of emperor. He might have retained the island, but his ambition induced him to seek possession also of Gaul, Spain, and Italy. He withdrew nearly all his troops from Britain, and so many of the Britons followed him to Gaul that the island was left almost defenceless. He became by the defeat and death of Gratian the undisputed master of the Western Empire, and established the seat of his government at Treves; but Theodosius, called the Great, the Emperor of the East, marched against him, and, after being defeated in two great battles, Maximus retired to Aquilea, on the confines of Italy and Illyria, where he was betrayed to the conqueror, who ordered him to be put to death, A.D. 388.

During the absence of Maximus the Picts and Scots had renewed their depredations in Britain; but Chrysantus, the lieutenant of Theodosius, repulsed them. In the reign of Honorius they and the Saxons recommenced their ravages, and it was in vain that Stilicho, the guardian of the boy-emperor, sought to restrain them. The Roman power was now indeed almost destroyed, and the Britons knowing this, permitted the soldiery to elect one Marcus Emperor of Britain. But Marcus was soon dethroned and put to death by the same soldiery who had exalted him, as was also a Gratian, whom they had set up in his stead. Their third choice fell on Constantine, who, like Maximus, aspired to the Empire of the West and, like Maximus, fell in the attempt to secure it.

A.D. 411. After the death of Constantine Honorius twice sent over troops for the recovery and protection of Britain; but danger at home obliged him to recall them, and about the year 420, nearly five centuries after Cæsar's first invasion, the Roman emperors abandoned the island. A mutual friendship subsisted, however, some time after between the Britons and Romans, and the Emperor Honorius, in a letter addressed to the states of Britain, seemed formally to release them from their allegiance, and to acknowledge the national independence.

The domination of the Romans over the Britons lasted for about 400 years, and after the period of transition and conflict was over, their rule was on the whole a happy one for the country. Under it civilisation rapidly gained ground. Order and magnificence, arts and literature, took the place of the imperfect government, the internal wars, the ignorance, the mud hovels, the towns in the woods, and the generally rude accommodations of the Britons. The country assumed a new aspect; cultivation was improved and extended, forests were swept away, roads were formed, and towns arose which exhibited piles of regular, stately, and decorated architecture. The Roman stations and towns exceeded 300; and many of these may yet be traced with some degree of precision. Roman foundations and remains still abound; and coins, pottery, urns with the ashes of the dead, and various instruments, are frequently discovered on the soil being turned up below the common depth of cultivation. The state of Britain under the Romans is forcibly depicted by the orator Eumenius in a panegyric on Constantine the Great. "Oh, fortunate Britannia," he exclaims, "thee hath nature deservedly enriched with the choicest blessings of heaven and earth. Thou neither feelest the excessive colds of winter, nor the scorching heats of summer. Thy harvests reward thy labours with so great an increase, as to supply thy tables with bread and thy cellars with liquor. Thy woods have no savage beasts; and there are no serpents there to harm the traveller. Innumerable are thy herds of cattle, and thy flocks of sheep, which feed thee plentifully and clothe thee richly. As to the comforts of life, the days are long, and no night passes without some glimpses of light." There is reason to believe that, at least throughout the whole of the second and third centuries of the Roman dominion in Britain, it was as flourishing and as happy a province as any other in the empire.

It was during the period of the Roman domination that a great change took place in the spiritual condition of Britain by the introduction of Christianity, though to whom our country was indebted for it is a matter of uncertainty. Eusebius asserts that it was some one of the apostles, which is confirmed by Theodoret,

who, after having mentioned Spain, declares that St. Paul brought salvation to the isles which lie in the ocean. Clement, who wrote before the end of the first century, and who was a fellow-labourer with the great apostle of the Gentiles, says that, being a preacher both in the east and west, he taught righteousness to the whole world, and went to the utmost bounds of the west. This testimony in favour of St. Paul's visiting Britain is certainly stronger than the traditional testimony concerning St. Peter, St. James, Simon Zelotes, Philip, and Joseph of Arimathea; but whether Christianity was introduced into the island by any of these holy men; or whether, after the persecution and death of Stephen, by some of the Syrian Christians, who were scattered abroad; or by the devout soldiers of the same nation, whom a famine had driven into the armies of Claudius; or by some of the Jewish converts dispersed over the world when Claudius "commanded all Jews to depart from Rome,"—cannot be ascertained. It must suffice to know that the island was early blessed by the dissemination of Christianity, and that before the end of the second century the Britons had generally received the gospel.

"The Julian spear
A way first opened, and with Roman chains
The tidings came of Jesus crucified.
They came—they spread: the weak, the suffering hear,
Receive the faith, and in the hope abide."

WORDSWORTH.

So well grounded in the Christian faith were the early Britons, that, in the third century, when "Diocletian's fiery sword worked busy as the lightning," many were found willing to offer up their lives for the sake of the gospel. In that persecution Alban, "England's first martyr," perished at Verulamium, now St. Albans; and Julian, Aaron, and others shared his fate. This persecution was stopped in the reign of Constantius Chloris; and when his son Constantine the Great assumed the empire the British church was in a flourishing condition. That it was an independent church is proved by the fact that British bishops attended the council of Arles in 314, of Sardica in 347, and of Ariminum in 359; and also by the many ecclesiastical councils held in Britain subsequently to the Roman domination. The particulars concerning the national ecclesiastical councils in England are meagre; but they prove at least that the British church of that period was zealous for the truth, and that it was independent. But another change was coming over the social, moral, and spiritual condition of the people.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

B. C.
55. First arrival of the Romans in Britain.

A.D.
43. Second expedition of the Romans, under Aulus Plautius.
59. Great massacre of the Romans.
70. Destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans under Titus.
121. Britain visited by the Emperor Hadrian and a wall built from the mouth of the Tyne to the Solway Firth.
288. Scandinavian pirates appear on the coast. Christianity supposed to have been first introduced in this period, but the date uncertain.
420. Romans leave Britain.

CHAP. III.

THE INVASION OF BRITAIN BY THE SAXONS.

GREAT uncertainty exists as to the state of Britain for some years after the departure of the Romans. It would appear that the free municipal government of the cities was quickly overthrown by military chiefs, principally of British but partly of Roman origin; that in a few years all traces of popular government were lost; and that a number of petty chiefs reigned absolutely and tyrannically as kings over kingdoms less in extent than a modern county of England. These kinglings, instead of uniting for their general safety against the Picts and Scots, who still harassed the country, made war upon each other, and never thought of forming any great defensive league until it was too late. The Picts and Scots, however, had no intention of occupying the country and settling in it as conquerors. Their expeditions were only forays; they came to plunder and destroy; and the booty they carried off season after season occasioned less serious loss than the slaughter and devastation that marked their advance and retreat.

At this crisis the more southern and least-exposed parts of the island were occupied by two factions: the Roman party, which was headed by Aurelius Ambrosius, a descendant of one of the emperors; and the British, who rallied round a chief named Vortigern. Dissension between these parties was inevitable, and it would appear that Aurelius Ambrosius took upon himself to implore the aid of the Romans. In the year 441 an abject prayer, entitled "The Groans of the Britons," was addressed to the consul Ætius, which declared: "The barbarians chase us into the sea; the

sea throws us back upon the barbarians; and we have only the hard choice left us of perishing by the sword or by the waves." But Ætius was then contending with Attila, "the scourge of Rome," and he could not afford a single cohort to the supplicants. The ravages of the Picts and Scots continued. Germanus of Auxerre, a Gallic bishop, who had been sent over to Britain to decide a religious controversy, and who had been a soldier before he became a priest, sallied out with a number of Britons, and to the shouts of hallelujah cut up a party of Picts who were plundering the coast; but this victory was far from being sufficient to stay the march of the invaders, who still continued to plunder the country and destroy its inhabitants.

At length, in the year 449, Vortigern took a memorable step by calling in the Saxon freebooters of the Baltic and northern Germany. At this time three *chiules*, keels, or long ships, were cruising in the British Channel, under the command of two brothers, distinguished warriors among the Saxons, who are known as Hengist and Horsa, and on the deck of their marauding vessels the Saxons received and readily accepted the invitation, which eventually led to the conquest of Britain. Vortigern appointed his willing guests to dwell in the east part of the land, and gave them the Isle of Thanet for their residence.

The Saxons appear to have derived their origin from the Scythians, and to have first entered Europe about the year 700 B.C. At the period when Vortigern implored their aid against the Picts and Scots, they were a ferocious and cruel people, who plundered and destroyed without remorse. Their vessels were for the most part frail barks, made of wooden frames covered with skins; but with these they fearlessly traversed the seas, and attacked any country to which they were wafted by the winds. Every warrior among them had his dagger, his spear, his battle-axe, and sword, all of steel. They also had bows and arrows, and their champions wielded a ponderous club, bound and spiked with iron; probably a copy from the Scandinavian hero Thor's "mighty hammer." The battle-axe and the hammer, wielded by the nervous arms of the Saxons, were the dread of their enemies, and by their bards they were represented as cleaving helmets and brains with blows that nothing could withstand. These were evidently dangerous people to invite into a country torn by factions and weakened by invasion.

In the first instance Hengist and Horsa appear to have fulfilled their engagement by marching against the Picts and Scots and driving these invaders from the kingdom, and soon after this, tradition relates, that Vortigern formed an alliance with Rowena, the fair daughter of Hengist. This is not an authenticated fact in

history; but, either from Vortigern's marriage with Rowena, or from his gratitude for martial services rendered to him, the Saxon leaders were permitted to fortify the Isle of Thanet and to invite over fresh forces. Other Saxons arrived in succession; but, when the Scots and Picts were defeated, the Britons wished to get rid of their allies. The Saxon adventurers, however, had observed the fertility of Britain, and resolved to take possession of it. The sword was soon drawn, and then the Saxons united with the Scots and Picts against the Britons, and spread death and destruction around them.

Vortigern, it is said, was deposed, and his son Vortimer elected in his stead. A partial league was then formed between the Roman faction and the Britons, and several battles were fought by their united forces against the Saxons. After a time, according to the common story, the two nations agreed to terminate their contention, and a meeting was held, at which the chief personages of both were mixed together, when on a sudden Hengist commanded the Saxons to unsheath their swords; on which each drew a short sword, or knife, which he had brought concealed in his hose, and slew all the Britons, Vortigern only excepted. This story is apocryphal; but it is certain that in the end Eric, the son of Hengist, remained in possession of all Kent and became the founder of the Kentish or first Saxon kingdom in our island.

The success of this first body of Saxons induced others to follow their example. In the year 477 Ella, with his three sons, landed in the ancient territory of the Regni, now Sussex, and after a slow progress of eight years established the kingdom of that name. In 495 another, and a more powerful body of Saxons, arrived under Cerdic, who, by conquering Hampshire and the Isle of Wight, founded Wessex, or the kingdom of the West Saxons. The next descent was to the north of the estuary of the Thames, where Ercewine, about A.D. 528, took possession of the flats of Essex with some of the adjacent county, and formed the state of the East Saxons. About the year 547 Ida, at the head of a large body of Angles, landed at Flamborough Head, and settled between the Tees and the Tyne, — a country which now includes the county of Durham, — and this conquest obtained the name of the kingdom of Bernicia. Other invaders came in between the Tees and the Humber, and after a fierce struggle founded the kingdom of Deira. Subsequently two great divisions of the Angles, called the South-folk and the North-folk, rushed in between the Stow and the Great Ouse and Wash, and their conquest — all Suffolk and Norfolk — was called the kingdom of East Anglia. Other Angles advanced from beyond the Humber, and fresh tribes arrived from the peninsula of Jutland and Holstein, and these, combining, seized upon

the territory now forming Lincolnshire, between the Wash and the Humber, the only chasm that existed in the Saxon line of coast from the Avon in Hampshire to the Tyne in Northumberland. This line was extended as far north as the Frith of Forth by the Saxons of Bernicia and Deira, who about the year 617 were united under one sceptre with the name of Northumbrians. All the western coast, from the Firth of Clyde to the Land's End in Cornwall, and the southern coast from the Land's End to the confines of Hampshire still remained in the hands of the Britons. Such had been the security of Cornwall that while the states of the south were becoming a prey to the Saxon invaders, in the year 470 twelve thousand armed Britons left its shore to assist Anthemius, who reigned in Italy, against the Visigoths.

The breadth of the Saxon territories was long uncertain and wavering A branch of the Saxons penetrated into the heart of the island, and founded a kingdom, under the name of Mercia, that extended over all the midland counties from the Severn to the Humber. At one period the Mercian Saxons spread to the south and east, till they reached the Thames. London became included in their dominion, and a kingdom was formed, which was one of the last of the heptarchy to be overthrown. During the period of their power these Mercians sought to conquer the bold mountaineers of Wales, but they were never able to effect their object ; and the Anglo-Saxons, who seized the dominions of the Mercians in the ninth and tenth centuries, were equally unsuccessful: though the country was reduced to its present limits of Wales and Monmouthshire, Cambria was never conquered by the Saxons. The people of Strathclyde and Cumbria, whose territories extended along the western coast from the Frith of Clyde to the Mersey and the Dee, also successfully resisted the Saxons. Lower down on the western coast, however, the Saxon arms were more successful. By the year 647 the inhabitants of Dunmonia, or Devonshire, submitted to the Anglo-Saxons (who may now be called the English), after having fought many battles to sustain their independence.

Few authentic particulars of the events which happened during the Saxon conquest have been preserved. All details of the British champions, not excepting those of the famous King Arthur, must be omitted, as unworthy of belief. It is doubtful indeed whether such a person as Arthur ever lived, and if he did, the stories related of him certainly contain more of romance than of history. If a real person, he was probably a chieftain in some part of south-west Britain who indulged in deeds of violence and blood within a narrow sphere, never exceeding a hundred miles from the centre of Somersetshire ; and were his knights and his courtiers to

be tried by the laws of man only most of them would now be thought worthy of being ranked among the felons and outcasts of society.

The history of the heptarchy is also more than half fabulous. Some writers have supposed that there was a lord paramount, or a sort of Emperor of England, over the seven separate and independent states or kingdoms of the Anglo-Saxons. This ascendant monarch is called the Bretwalda, a Saxon term, which signifies the ruler of Brit, or Britain; and according to Bede and the Saxon Chronicle seven or eight of the Saxon princes in irregular succession bore this proud title. But this is not certain, although the names of those are mentioned who are said to have enjoyed this dignity.

The first Bretwalda it is said was Ella, the conqueror of Sussex, and the founder of the kingdom of the South Saxons. Ella died about the year 510, and after a long interval Ceawlin, King of Wessex, who began to reign about 568, assumed the dignity. His claim was disputed by Ethelbert, fourth King of Kent, who claimed it in right of his descent from Hengist, the brother of Horsa. The dispute led to hostilities, and Ethelbert was twice defeated; but in the year 593 he acquired the dignity for which he had fought by the death of his rival.

In the reign of Ethelbert a remarkable incident occurred. By the conquest of the Saxons the ecclesiastical as well as civil government had been overturned, and their barbarity had spread such devastation throughout the land, that Christianity was now chiefly confined to those mountainous districts where the Britons still retained their liberty. A second and a darker shade of Pagan night came over England, and the storm burst with equal violence upon tower and temple. Churches were destroyed and ecclesiastics murdered, so that at length the Christianity of the country was chiefly to be traced by heaps of ashes and tokens of devastation. Still it must not be supposed that all the British Christians were exterminated. There is direct testimony that some continued in the land under the Saxon rule, and that by them the light of the gospel was preserved in various parts of the country. The British church was "cast down but not destroyed:" it bowed before the Tartaric idolatry of the north, but was not wholly swept away. But the time was now come when even the Pagan conquerors of Britain were to become converted to the Christian faith.

One day, before Gregory the Great was elevated to the Pontificate, he saw a number of comely Saxon youths in the slave-market at Rome. Struck with their appearance, he inquired who they were; and on being told that they were called Angles, he exclaimed, "Angels they truly are, and ought to be joined to the angelic company." On being further told that they came from the

province of Deira, he replied, "Ay! *de ira* indeed; from the wrath of God they must be plucked, and brought unto the grace of Christ." Continuing these quibblings, when he learned that Ella was the name of their king, he rejoined, "Alleluia! alleluias must be chanted by them in the dominions of their sovereign." The design which was thus quaintly expressed was however never dropped from the mind of Gregory, and when he was advanced to the Papal throne he dispatched forty monks to England to put it into execution, at the head of which mission was one named Augustine.

The enterprise was greatly favoured by the circumstance that Bertha, the wife of Ethelbert, who was a Frankish princess, was passionately devoted to the Christian faith. After the arrival of Augustine and his fellow missionaries, Ethelbert was informed that certain strangers, habited in a foreign garb, and practising several mysterious ceremonies, wished to be admitted into his presence, in order that they might communicate to him and his people tidings of importance to their eternal welfare. He granted them an audience in the Isle of Thanet, surrounded by his nobles and seated in the open air, from an ancient superstitious notion that enchantments were less potent under the canopy of heaven than within the walls of a building made with hands. Augustine and his companions now approached in procession, bearing a silver crucifix and the figure of our Saviour painted upon a banner, and chanting the solemn Litany of the Church. On approaching Ethelbert, they stated to him the object of their mission, and having received a favourable reply, in which they were permitted to fix their residence at Canterbury, they retired and commenced their labours. Their success was rapid and decided. Under the protection of Ethelbert the new religion prevailed, the Saxon priesthood themselves, in many instances, setting the example of conversion. It is related that, on the first preaching of the gospel in Northumberland, the Saxon pontiff mounted a horse, which was an abomination to his order, and burst into the consecrated precinct, where he hewed that idol in pieces to whose service his life had been devoted. That the religion of the Cross was embraced by the Saxon populace with fervid zeal is clear from the change which took place in society. The asperities of savage life became gradually softened down, and the passionate devotion to war and bloodshed tamed. A milder spirit insinuated itself into the social mass, and the monastic system, which was established throughout the realm, powerfully advanced the work of civilisation. Thus at the opening of the seventh century were laid the foundations of the Anglo-Saxon Church.

Ethelbert's reign was a very long and happy one. He died in the year 616, and was succeeded, as King of Kent, by his son

Eadbald. But Eadbald married his stepmother Bertha, and, as the Christians reprobated such marriages, he returned to the Teutonic idolatry, and the people of Kent turned with him, and again set up the rude altars of the Scandinavian idols. Laurentius, the successor of Augustine, however, prevailed on Eadbald to put away his stepmother and return to his fold; and no sooner had the king done so, than all his subjects returned with him without a murmur.

Eadbald now laid claim to the dignity of Bretwalda; but this was disputed by the other princes, and the dignity was conferred on Redwald, King of East Anglia. Redwald had been converted to Christianity some years before, but his wife and people were attached to the old idolatry, and, yielding to their importunities, he reopened the temples though at the same time he placed a Christian altar by the side of the statue of Woden. Redwald was afterwards engaged in war with the Northumbrian King Edilfrid; and a battle was fought between them on the banks of the River Idel, in Nottinghamshire, where Edilfrid was defeated and slain.

Edwin succeeded Edilfrid in his kingdom, and to the dignity of Redwald as Bretwalda; and so successful was this prince in his wars, that he raised Northumbria to a superiority over all the Saxon kingdoms,—thus transferring the ascendency from the south to the north of the island.

Edwin had been instructed when a child in the Christian faith; but he still retained an attachment to Pagan superstitions. Soon after he commenced his reign, however, he was converted by the preaching of Paulinus, a Roman missionary, and the influence of his wife Edildurga, the daughter of Ethelbert; and the happiest effects are said to have followed the conversion. It was a common saying that in his reign a woman with a babe in her arms might travel unprotected without experiencing either insult or injury. But his reign was brief; for about the year 633 Penda, the Saxon Prince of Mercia, rebelled against his authority as Bretwalda, and, forming an alliance with Cadwallader, the King of North Wales, he fought a great battle at Heathfield near the River Trent, in which Edwin was defeated and slain.

The confederate armies of Penda and Cadwallader committed a horrible slaughter, sparing neither age nor sex. Cadwallader remained in the territory of Northumbria, but Penda marched into Norfolk against the East Angles, whose king Sigebert had lately resigned his crown to his cousin Egeric, and retired into a monastery; but at the approach of Penda and his Pagan host he left his retirement and joined Egeric at the head of his army. But Penda was again successful, and both Sigebert and Egeric fell in battle.

In the year 634 Oswald, the nephew of Edwin, raised his banner in Northumbria, and surprised Cadwallader and his Welsh forces near Hexham; and this time the Anglo-Saxons prevailed. On their part the battle began with prayers, and it ended in the defeat of the Welsh and the death of Cadwallader. Oswald was recognised by the two Northumbrian states of Bernicia and Deira; recovered all that his uncle Edwin had lost; became Bretwalda; and showed his gratitude to Heaven by endeavouring to establish Christianity throughout the north, in which he appears to have been successful. As Bretwalda Oswald exercised an authority over the Saxon nations and provinces equal to that of his uncle Edwin, and he is said to have compelled the chiefs of the Scots and Picts to acknowledge themselves as his vassals. But his reign was brief; he was slain in battle, in the year 642, by the fierce and still unconverted Penda, King of Mercia.

Oswald was succeeded by his brother Osway; but about the year 651 his kingdom was re-divided into its two ancient independent states, and whilst Osway retained Bernicia, Odelwald reigned in Deira. Penda was still anxious to obtain the dignity of Bretwalda, and, after having driven the Christian King of Wessex from the throne in the year 652, he again advanced into Northumberland. Oswy entreated for peace, which he obtained by means of presents, hostages, and an arrangement of intermarriage. But as long as Penda was alive there could be no lasting peace in the country. Having desolated East Anglia in 654, he returned into Northumbria, and this time gifts and offers were of no avail: Oswy was compelled to fight, and he was victorious. Penda perished by the violent death he had caused to so many princes, and many of his chief captains were slain with him. Oswy afterwards overran the country of his old enemies the Mercians, attached all the territory north of the Trent and the southern part of Mercia to his kingdom, and assumed the rank of Bretwalda.

There was soon another Bretwalda, however. In 656 the nobles of Mercia rose up in arms, expelled the Northumbrians, and gave the crown to Wulfare, one of Penda's sons, whom they had concealed from the search of Oswy. Wulfare extended his dominions by conquest in Wessex and the neighbouring countries, and then proclaimed himself king of all the "Australian regions," or Bretwalda in all those parts of the island south of the Humber. About this time a sickness, called the yellow, or *yellers* plague, ravaged the country. Kings, archbishops, monks, and nuns were among the victims of this pestilence which lasted for twenty years, and during its progress Oswy, who is generally considered the last of the Bretwaldas, died, though not of the disease, A.D. 670.

Oswy was succeeded by his son Egfrid, who had scarcely ascended the throne when the Picts between the Tyne and the Forth revolted; but they were defeated, and again reduced to a doubtful obedience; after which Egfrid, ambitious of obtaining all the possessions his father had once held, invaded Mercia. A battle was fought in the year 679, and great slaughter took place on both sides, when peace was restored by the mediation of a bishop. Egfrid was slain in 685, in a war with Brude, King of the Picts, and the kingdom of Northumbria then became the scene of wretched anarchy. In the course of a century six kings were murdered; five were expelled by their subjects; two became monks; and one only died in possession of the crown.

On the decline of Northumbria its old rival Mercia assumed the ascendency, and by the year 737 Ethelbald, the Mercian king, ruled with paramount authority over all the country south of the Humber, Wales excepted. The superiority of Mercia, however, was more successfully asserted by Offa between the years 757 and 794. After subduing parts of Sussex and Kent, he invaded Oxfordshire, and took all that part of the kingdom of Wessex that lay on the left of the Thames. Subsequently he drove the Kings of Powis from Pengwern, now Shrewsbury, beyond the River Wye, and planted strong Saxon colonies between that river and the Severn. He also caused a ditch and rampart to be drawn all along the frontiers of Wales; remains of which still exist, and are called Offa's Dyke. This work was scarcely finished when the Welsh filled up part of the ditch, broke through the rampart, and slew many of Offa's soldiers while they were enjoying the festivities of Christmas. But Offa took a terrible revenge. Encountering the mountaineers at Rhuddlan, he killed the King of North Wales, and the pride of the Welsh youth and nobility were slain with him. The last exploit of Offa was the defeat of a body of Danish invaders: a people that were now designing the future conquest of England. Offa died in the year 795, when the great power of Mercia began rapidly to decline, and Wessex to obtain the ascendency.

At the time of Offa's death the kingdom of Wessex was ruled by Beortric, whose right to the throne of Wessex was questionable; but he prevailed over his rival Egbert, who took refuge in the court of the Emperor Charlemagne. Beortric married Eadburgha, the daughter of Offa; a woman of a most depraved character and cruel nature. She had prepared a cup of poison for a young nobleman who was her husband's favourite; but the king drank of it as well as the intended victim, and died a horrid death. Eadburgha fled, and also took refuge with Charlemagne, who assigned her a residence in a convent; but she was expelled from thence for vicious conduct, and ended her days at Pavia, in the garb of a mendicant.

The death of Beortric took place A. D. 800, and he was succeeded by his old rival Egbert. Early in his reign Egbert had to meet the hostility of the Mercians, who invaded Wessex; but he defeated them, and attached Mercia and all its dependencies to his kingdom. Egbert then established *sub-reguli*, or under-kings, in Kent and East Anglia, and in the year A. D. 825 he subdued the Northumbrians, and Eanred their monarch became his vassal and tributary. The kingdoms of the heptarchy were now united under one sovereign; but Egbert did not assume the title of King of England. He contented himself with that of King of Wessex, to which he added the dignity and authority of Bretwalda. This authority was sometimes disputed, but there were none who could withstand his power, and during the last ten years of his reign he ruled over more territory than any Saxon monarch that preceded him. At one time he even coerced and kept Wales in a dependent state; but no sooner had England made some approaches to union and the blessings of a regular government, than the Danes, or Northmen, appeared on the coasts, and began to throw everything again into confusion. The land was once more to become the prey of foreign and barbarous invaders.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.
449. The Saxons under Hengist and Horsa invaded England.
597. Arrival of Augustine and conversion of Ethelbert to Christianity.

NOTE.—It is not generally intended in these to include political events, but only things worthy to be remembered, which cannot in so concise a history be mentioned more at length.

CHAP. IV.

THE INVASION OF THE DANES.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	DENMARK.	NORWAY AND SWEDEN.
768. ...	...	Charlemagne		Regner Ladbrok.	
800. Egbert the Great	...	...		...	
814. ...	Kenneth	Louis I. (the Pious)		...	
836. Ethelwulf	II.	Charles the Bald	Lothaire I.	...	
855. ...	Donald V.	...	...	Gorm the Old	Harold Haarfager
858. Ethelbald	Constantine II.	Louis II.	Charles the Fat	...	...
860. Ethelbert	...	Louis III.	...	...	...
...	...	Charles the Fat	...	...	...
866. Ethelred I.	...	Eudes	Arnold	...	...
871. Alfred the Great	...	Charles the simple	Louis IV.	...	...
901. Edward the Elder	Constantine III.	Robert I.	Conrad I.	...	...
924. Athelstan	...	Ralph	Henry I.	...	...
...	Malcolm I.	Louis IV.	Otho the Great	...	...
940. Edmund	...	...	...	...	...
946. Edred	...	...	...	...	...
948. ...	...	...	...	Harold II.	...
955. Edwy	Indulfus	Lothaire	...	...	...
	Duffus	...	...	...	...
959. Edgar	Cullen	...	Otho II.	...	...
975. Edward the Martyr	Kenneth III.	...	Otho III.	...	...
978. Ethelred II.	Constantine IV.	...	...	...	...
994. ...	...	...	...	Sweyn I.	Erik.
...	...	...	...	Harold III.	Haco the Good.
1016. ...	...	...	...	Canute the Great	Olav I.

THE Danes were races of people inhabiting Norway, Denmark, and Sweden. They were divided into several nations continually engaged in mutual warfare, and their martial prowess was not confined to their own shores. Habituated to the use of arms, they

were accustomed to navigate the seas and commit acts of piracy upon the neighbouring nations. War was the constant occupation followed universally by the sons of noble families, who were provided with ships and followers, and then sent to sea to seek their fortunes. For a long time the warfare of these hordes of savages was confined to the shores of the Baltic and the adjoining coasts, but at the close of the eighth century they began to sail further from home, and in their onward progress they invaded the coasts of England.

In the year 832, when Egbert was at the height of his power, a number of Danes landed in the Isle of Sheppey, and having plundered it, returned to their ships without opposition. The next year they came again, and were encountered by Egbert at Charmouth in Dorsetshire, where it is supposed he suffered a defeat. It is, at all events, certain that, after a desperate battle had taken place, the Danes maintained their position, and afterwards retired without hindrance. As they cruised along the English coast also they made acquaintance with the people of Cornwall, the descendants of the ancient Britons, who had never been thoroughly subdued; and the result of this acquaintance was that an alliance was formed between the two, and in the year 834 the Danes and the men of Cornwall marched together into Devonshire to attack the Saxons; but Egbert met them with a large army at Hengsdown Hill, and defeated them with great slaughter. This was his last exploit; and he died in 836.

ETHULWULF.

Egbert was succeeded by his eldest son Ethelwulf; one of whose first acts was to give the kingdom of Kent, with its dependencies Sussex and Essex, in separate sovereignty to his son Athelstane. About the same time, too, Mercia revolted and re-established its independence, and thus, when union was becoming more necessary than ever, jealousy and discord prevailed.

During this state of things the Danish pirates returned to England; and having ravaged all the southern coasts of the kingdom, they sailed up the Thames and the Medway, and stormed and pillaged London, Rochester, and Canterbury. Their ravages induced Ethelwulf, and Barhulf, King of Mercia, to unite their forces, and some energetic measures followed their union. Barhulf was slain, but Ethelwulf and his son Ethelbald gained a complete victory over the Danes at Okeley in Surrey; and soon after they were defeated by Athelstane, the King of Kent, at Sandwich, and also by the men of Devon at Wenbury. These checks, together with the disordered state of France, which favoured their incursions in

that direction, induced the marauders to suspend their attacks on England; but such were the apprehensions they still inspired, that every Wednesday was appointed as a day of public prayer to implore the Divine assistance against them.

The temporary respite which England now enjoyed from the harassing attacks of its ferocious enemies appeared to Ethelwulf to afford a favourable opportunity for gratifying his desire of making a pilgrimage to St. Peter's at Rome, according to the practice of many of his predecessors and most Saxons of rank since their conversion. He crossed the Alps in safety, taking with him his youngest son Alfred; and after passing a year in Rome, where he had been honourably received, he set out on his return. On his way back, however, though now an old man, he became enamoured of Judith, the very youthful daughter of Charles the Bald, King of the Franks, a damsel some say only twelve years old, and married her with great solemnity in the Cathedral of Rheims, where he placed her by his side and had her crowned as queen. But it happened that, in consequence of the crimes of Eadburgha, the queenly dignity had been for ever abolished by the laws of Wessex, and on hearing of this event, the prince Ethelbald Adelstane, Bishop of Sherborn, and the thanes and men of Wessex, joined in a plot to dethrone Ethelwulf. On his return to the island with his young bride he found a formidable faction in arms, and though he had still many friends, he shrunk from a civil war with his son, and consented to a compromise. He retained to himself the eastern part of Wessex, but resigned all the western, which was considered the richest and best portion, to Ethelbald. The old King Ethelwulf did not long survive this partition, but died in the year 857.

ETHELBALD.

At the time of Ethelwulf's death, Athelstan, his eldest son, was dead also, so that Ethelbald succeeded to the whole of his father's kingdom; and, moreover, immediately married his father's young widow; but this union could not be tolerated by the Romish church, and its bishops at last obtained his consent to a divorce. This at least is one account, but other authorities relate that the marriage was only dissolved by his death, and that both priests and people attributed the shortness of his reign to this sinful alliance, which had drawn down God's vengeance upon his head. He died A.D. 859.

ETHELBERT.

Ethelbald was succeeded in the kingdom of Wessex by his brother Ethelbert; whose brief reign was greatly troubled by the

inroads of the Danes into almost every part of the island. They burned Winchester, his capital, and established themselves in the Isle of Thanet, which they made the key of their conquests, as the Saxons had done before them. Ethelbert died in the year 866 or 867.

ETHELRED.

Ethelbert was succeeded by his brother Ethelred, who in the first year of his reign had to fight nine battles with the Danes. While he was thus engaged in resisting the invaders the chiefs of Mercia and Northumbria withdrew from his alliance, and the men of Wessex were left to maintain the struggle alone. During the first six years of Ethelred's reign the destruction of the Danes was great; but their loss was constantly supplied by fresh forces from the north. In most of these conflicts Alfred fought along with Ethelred his brother; and at Aston, or Ashenden, in Berkshire, he mainly contributed to a great victory while the king was engaged at prayers, and his division was inactive. The victory of Aston was followed by the defeats of Basing and Mereton, and soon after this Ethelred died, leaving his crown to Alfred. (A.D. 871.)

ALFRED.

Alfred was but twenty-two years of age when he commenced his reign. At that time the Danes held the Isle of Thanet, which gave them the command of the River Thames and the coasts of Kent and Essex: they had conquered Northumbria; planted strong colonies at York; desolated Nottinghamshire, Lincolnshire, Norfolk and Suffolk; ranged through the whole length of the island on this side the Tweed, with the exception of the western counties of England; and had established fortified camps between the Severn and the Thames. The Anglo-Saxon standard had been driven back towards the south-western corner of the island, which includes Somersetshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall, and which now became the scene of warfare.

Surrounded by enemies as he was, Alfred did not despair. He had been already tried in many battles, and, though his foes were fierce and powerful, he did not fear them. He had scarcely been a month on the throne when a battle was fought at Wilton, in which the Danes suffered so severely, that they were obliged to conclude a treaty and to evacuate his kingdom of Wessex. The invading army withdrew to London, where they wintered; and in the following spring, having been joined by fresh hosts, they marched into Lincolnshire, which they desolated. From Lincolnshire they

marched to Derbyshire; and there, at the town of Repton, took up their winter-quarters.

In the next year (A.D. 875) an army of Danes, under Halfdane, conquered Northumbria, and divided the mass of its territory among his followers, who, settling there, and intermarrying with the Anglo-Saxons, became so mixed with them as almost to form one people. While Halfdane was thus employed, another army, commanded by three kings as they were called, marched upon Cambridge, which they fortified and made their winter-quarters. By this time the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia were obliterated, and the contest lay between the Danes and Alfred's kingdom of Wessex.

In the year 876 the Danes, who had wintered at Cambridge, took to their ships and carried the war into Wessex. They landed on the coast of Dorsetshire, surprised the castle of Wareham, and desolated the neighbouring districts. In the interval of the peace, however, Alfred had conceived an idea which may be considered as the commencement of the naval glory of England. On establishing themselves in the country the Saxons had neglected sea affairs, but Alfred determined to devote his attention to them. He set afloat a small flotilla, and in its very first encounter with the enemy it proved victorious, attacking a Danish squadron of seven ships, taking one, and putting the rest to flight. The Danes now again treated for peace, and swore by their golden bracelets, which with them was a solemn form of oath, that they would evacuate Wessex. Alfred insisted that they should swear upon the relics of some Christian saints, and they took this double oath; but the very next night they fell upon Alfred unexpectedly near Winchester. He himself had a narrow escape; the horsemen who were in attendance upon him were nearly all dismounted and slain, and the Danes, seizing their horses, hastened towards Exeter. Their plan now was to take Alfred in the rear of his stronghold in the west of England and again to rouse the people of Cornwall against the Saxons. A formidable Danish fleet sailed from the Thames to reinforce the troops in Devonshire, but a storm which arose caused the wreck of half of it, and the other half was destroyed by the Saxon fleet that blockaded the Exe. By this time Alfred had invested Exeter with his land forces, and Guthrun, the Danish king, who held that town, capitulated, gave hostages and oaths, and then marched into Mercia.

By the old writers the Danes were called "truce breakers," and they well deserved their name. No sooner had Guthrun retreated from Exeter than he began to prepare for another war. He fixed his head-quarters at the city of Gloucester; the broad and fertile lands around which he distributed among his warriors. A winter

campaign had been hitherto unknown among the Danes; but on the first day of January, 878, Guthrun gave orders to his warriors to meet him at an appointed place. Alfred was then at Chippenham, a strong residence of the Wessex kings, and on the feast of the Epiphany, or twelfth-night, when the Saxons were celebrating that festival, he heard that Guthrun and his Danes were at the gates. Thus surprised, he could offer but a feeble resistance; many of his followers were slain; the foe burst into Chippenham, and Alfred with a little band escaped to the fastnesses of the moors. The Danes now rode over the kingdom of Wessex in triumph: no army was left to oppose them, and, while numbers of the population fled to the Isle of Wight, the rest submitted to the conquerors.

Alfred sought refuge in Somersetshire; but, although the people of that country generally remained true to his cause, he was obliged to hide in fens and coverts, for fear of being betrayed to his enemy Guthrun. His hiding-place was near the confluence of the rivers Thone and Parret, in a tract of country still called Athelney, or the Prince's Island. This tract was then covered by a dense wood, and was the secluded haunt of deer, wild boars, wild goats, and other beasts of the forest. The sustenance of Alfred and his little band in this wild place depended merely upon hunting and fishing and the spoils they could make by sudden forays among the Danes. Several incidents have been related as having occurred to Alfred while in this seclusion. In one of his excursions, says the monk Asser, he took refuge in the cabin of a swineherd. One day the herdsman led his swine to pasture, and the king remained in the hut. On this occasion the wife of the swain prepared some loaves of bread and set them to bake among the ashes on the hearth. Alfred was busied by the fire, making ready his bows and arrows, when on a sudden the woman beheld her loaves burning. She ran hastily and removed them, and reproaching Alfred for his negligence, exclaimed, "You man! You will not turn the bread you see burning, but you will be glad enough to eat it;" a reproof to which the king quietly submitted.

From his retreat in Athelney Alfred maintained a correspondence with some of his faithful adherents, and by degrees a few bold warriors gathered round his standard in that islet. Between the Easter and Whitsunday following his flight he saw hopes of emerging from his obscurity. The men of Somersetshire, Wiltshire, Dorsetshire, and Hampshire resorted to him, and Alfred was soon able to meet his foes. An important event, too, favoured his cause. Hubba, a Danish king, in attempting to land in Devonshire, was slain, with many of his followers, and their magical banner, a raven, fell into the hands of the victorious Saxons.

Emboldened by this circumstance, Alfred determined to commence decisive operations, but he desired previously to ascertain the precise force and condition of the army under Guthrun, and to obtain this information he put himself in great peril. The enemy had formed a permanent camp at Yatton, near Westbury, and into this Alfred entered in the habit of a wandering minstrel, and while he amused the Danes with songs he noticed their sloth and negligence, and heard much of their councils and plans. On his return to Athelney he sent messengers to all quarters, requesting the trusty men of Wessex to meet him in arms at Egbert's Stone, which was on the east of Selwood Forest. The summons was obeyed, and in a general battle at Ethundune, now Yatton, which ensued, the Danes were defeated.

Guthrun retreated with the remnant of his army to a fortified position, but in fourteen days he was compelled to accept the conditions offered by Alfred, which were indeed very liberal. Guthrun was to evacuate all Wessex, and to be baptized; on consenting to which, an extensive cession of territory was to be made to him and the Danes. These terms were accepted, and Guthrun was baptized, Alfred answering for him at the baptismal font, loading him with presents, and conferring on him the Saxon name of Athelstane. After being entertained for twelve days as Alfred's guest, he and his followers departed, and were allowed to settle in the eastern part of England as peaceable colonists. Whatever were the inward convictions of Guthrun, or the sincerity of his conversion, he was certainly captivated by the merits of his conqueror, and ever afterwards continued Alfred's faithful friend and ally. The Danes acquired habits of industry and tranquillity, and gradually adopted the manners and customs of more civilised life.

About the time that Alfred effected the conquest of his old enemy he invited Asser, the monk of St. David's, to his court or camp, that he might profit by his learning; and arrangements were made between them that Asser should pass half his time in his monastery and the rest of the year at court. With Asser the king conversed and read all such books as he possessed; their friendship continued unbroken till death; and when Alfred died the honourable testimony was read in his will, that Asser was a person in whom he had full confidence.

It was some time before Alfred could give himself up to quiet enjoyments and to the improvement of his people; for, though Guthrun was faithful, hosts of marauding Danes continued to cross from the Continent and infest our island. In 879 a large army came and wintered at Fullanham, or Fulham; but finding no encouragement from their kindred, they passed in the spring over to Flanders. In the year 885, while the Danes were besieging the city of Paris

Alfred rebuilt and fortified the city of London, which he committed to the care and custody of his son-in-law Ethelred. For seven years his country enjoyed tolerable repose; and during this time he was employed in strengthening it and bettering the condition of his people. In the year 893, however, the Danes once more turned the prows of their vessels towards the British shores. A famine raged in Flanders, where they had been employed, and they longed for the corn and fatted beeves which then abounded in England.

The Danish fleet consisted of 250 ships, every one of which was full of warriors and horses. The invaders landed near Romney Marsh in Kent, on the eastern side of a great wood; and, after towing their ships four miles up a small river and taking a fort, they proceeded to Apuldre, or Appledore, where they intrenched themselves in a strongly-fortified camp. About the same time Hasting, the commander-in-chief of the expedition, entered the Thames with another division of ships, and landed at Milton, where he also threw up strong intrenchments. For some time the Danes contented themselves with scouring the country in foraging parties, and Alfred, who had made every exertion to meet the danger, could not bring them to a battle, though he took up his position between Hasting and the other division of the Danes, and by this means kept asunder the two armies, watching for an opportunity of attacking either, should they quit their intrenchments. The Danes were by his vigilance confined to their camp, and Hasting at last resolved to make his escape. By a sudden manœuvre he passed Alfred and penetrated into Surrey; but he was defeated at Farnham, and the remains of his forces fled for refuge to the Isle of Mersey. In this position the Danes remained blockaded for some time, but Alfred was called away from them by an invasion of the Danes of East Anglia, who with two fleets had proceeded along the coast as far as Devonshire and laid siege to Exeter. Leaving a part of his army on the confines of Essex, he mounted the rest on horses and hastened to the west, whither victory followed him; and the Danes were driven to their ships with great slaughter.

During Alfred's absence Ethelred, his son-in-law, laid siege to the Danish fortified post of Benfleet in Essex, broke into it, and took captive the wife of Hasting and his two sons. Alfred, on his return, was advised to put them to death; but, with Christian magnanimity, he set them at liberty, and sent them back to the Danish chief. Hasting, however, could not appreciate this generous conduct. By this time he had thrown up another intrenchment at South Showbury in Essex, and being reinforced, he sailed up the Thames, and thence spread the mass of his forces into the heart of the kingdom. From the Thames he marched to the Severn, and fortified himself at Buttington. Here he was surrounded by Alfred,

who was joined by the men of North Wales, and in a short time the supplies of the Danes were cut off. Famine stared them in the face, and Hasting was compelled to issue from his intrenchments and meet his enemy. A terrific battle took place, in which the Danes were defeated: hundreds were slain in the attempt to break through Alfred's lines; many were drowned in the Severn; and the rest, headed by Hasting, effected their escape, and took refuge in their ships on the coast of Essex.

During the winter that followed his defeat on the Severn Hasting was reinforced, and in the spring he again burst into North Wales; but, after ravaging part of that country, he was met by a royal army and compelled to march to the north-east. After traversing Northumbria, Lincolnshire, Norfolk, and Suffolk, he regained his fortified post at South Showbury in Essex, where he wintered. Early in the spring he drew his ships up the River Lea, securing them by a fortress erected about twenty miles to the north of London. Here he successfully resisted the attacks of Alfred during the summer, but in the autumn Alfred contrived to turn the channel of the Lea, and Hasting's fleet was left aground and useless. Hasting fled, and, while the citizens of London seized his grounded fleet, Alfred followed him. Alfred found his enemy in a fortified position at Quartbridge in Shropshire, and he was compelled to leave him there during the winter. By this time Hasting had learned that his power was of no avail against the genius and energy of Alfred, and in the following spring of 897 he abandoned his camp; and, while some of his followers sought shelter among their brethren in Northumbria, Norfolk, and Suffolk; some sailed for the Scheldt and the mouth of the Rhine, and others, adhering to Hasting, passed over to France. A small fleet was equipped on the eastern coast, and the humbled chieftain crossed the channel without having obtained either profit or honour.

After the departure of Hasting the Danes of Northumbria and East Anglia resumed their piratical enterprises; but in these they were defeated by the Saxons, who, under the direction of Alfred, constructed larger vessels than those of the enemy. By this means he conquered the sea-kings, as the Danes were called, on their own element. Alfred was the first British monarch who possessed an efficient navy; at the end of his reign his fleet exceeded the number of one hundred sail. These vessels were divided into squadrons, and stationed at different ports round the island, while some kept constantly cruising round the coasts.

During the excursions of Hasting England suffered greatly from his ravages. Nor were these the only calamities which the country endured at this period. "For three years the land was vexed with three manner of sorrows, — with war of the Danes,

pestilence of men, and murrain of beasts." The pestilence carried off great numbers, and among them many of the chief thanes, or nobles, of the Saxons. It continued some time after the departure of the Danes, but on its cessation the country enjoyed peace and prosperity.

The remainder of Alfred's life was spent with as much comfort as his declining health would permit. Even the Britons sought to be at peace with him, and his latter years were marked by unceasing efforts for the benefit of his people. He died A. D. 901.

The advantages which England derived from the rule of Alfred were many and great. Besides delivering his people from the power of the ferocious Danes, he conferred other and lasting benefits on them, not the least of which was a code of laws founded in many respects upon Christian principles and enforcing Christian morals. He also endeavoured, by liberality and kindness, to attract to England all such foreigners as could give information on sea affairs, geography, and the discovery of unknown countries, and were otherwise qualified to illuminate the national ignorance. He taught the people how to build better houses, founded or rebuilt many towns, erected fortifications, and established schools. His desire that his people should become educated was shown both by precept and example. Although actively engaged from his youth in war, he not only learned to read Anglo-Saxon, but also Latin; an extraordinary acquirement for a prince of the ninth century. He was accustomed to say that he regretted the neglected education of his youth more than all the hardships and sorrows and crosses that befel him in after life. As one of his great impediments had been the Latin language, he recommended, in an address to the bishops, that all good and useful books should be translated into Anglo-Saxon, so that the youths of England might be able to read them. He procured the translation of parts of the Bible into the Saxon language, by which means the ministers of religion and the people at large were greatly improved. His own literary works — for Alfred himself was a writer — consisted chiefly of translations from Latin into Anglo-Saxon. How he could find time for these laudable occupations may excite surprise; but Alfred was steady and persevering in his habits, and a great economist of time. He devoted eight hours of each day to the affairs of government, eight to study and prayer, and eight to sleep and meals. Clocks and watches were then unknown in England, but he contrived to mark his time by the constant burning of wax torches, which were notched in the stem at regular distances. These torches or candles were twelve inches long; six of them, of seventy-two inches of wax, were consumed in twenty-four hours; and thus, supposing the notches at intervals of an inch, one inch would mark the lapse of twenty minutes. Another useful inven-

tion is also on good ground attributed to him. At that time a palace was more exposed to the weather than the cottage of a peasant at the present day, and to defend his candles from the currents of air which passed through his palace, Alfred contrived a horn lantern. Asser says that, the king having found that white horn could be rendered transparent as glass, he, with that material and wood, made a case for his candle, which kept it from wasting or flaring. Besides economising his own time, Alfred regulated with equal care the attendance of his officers and the expenditure of his revenue. A considerable part of this was employed in works of charity and public utility, particularly the promotion of education. He is supposed to have been the founder of the University of Oxford, and it is certain that he erected several educational establishments. Another of his plans was designed to put an end to the system of slavery which then prevailed; but his efforts were not successful. In his regulations for promoting justice and security he succeeded better; and established so excellent a system of police that, towards the end of his reign, it was said that golden bracelets and jewels might have been hung in the public highways and cross-roads, and no man would have dared to touch them for fear of the law. Towards arbitrary, unjust, or corrupt administrators of the law he was inexorable; and those who were ignorant or careless he reprimanded and suspended. All appeals were heard by him with great patience; and in cases of importance he revised all law proceedings with the utmost industry. The system of trial by jury may be traced to him,—a system which has proved a blessing to succeeding generations; and every particular of his conduct and character that has become known to us confirms the belief of his having been a great, wise, and pious monarch, whose claims to our respect are heightened by his superiority to the age in which he lived. Even now, after the lapse of nearly a thousand years, he is still deservedly the object of reverence, almost of affection, to the English people.

EDWARD THE ELDER.

On the death of Alfred the succession to the throne was disputed between his son Edward and his nephew Ethelwald, a son of Ethelbald, one of Alfred's elder brothers. Each party prepared for battle; but Ethelwald, finding himself the weaker, fled to the Danes in the north of England, and was hailed by them as their king. In the year 905 Ethelwald made an incursion through Mercia and the midland counties; but, being repulsed, he returned to Lincolnshire, where he perished in a battle with the forces of Edward. The Danes still continued a desultory warfare, but in

the year 911 Edward obtained a decisive victory over them, by which his power was established. The spirit of Alfred, however, seemed more particularly to survive in his daughter Ethelfleda, the wife of Ethelred, who ruled over Mercia. Her brother Edward took possession of London and Oxford, but she resolutely defended the rest of Mercia against all her enemies. At her death, which took place in the year 920, Mercia was united to Wessex; after which Edward took most of the Danish towns between the Thames and the Humber, and forced the Danes north of the Humber to acknowledge his supremacy. The Welsh, the Scots, and the men of Galloway are also said to have done him homage and to have accepted him as their "father, lord, and protector." He died A.D. 925.

ATHELSTANE.

The death of Edward was followed in a few days by that of his eldest son Ethelwald, when the crown devolved on Athelstane, who established a more brilliant throne, and made a still nearer approach to the sovereignty of all England than his father had done. He reduced all Wales to tranquillity, if not to vassalage; and compelled the Welsh to send gold, silver, beeves, and their best hounds and hawks to his court. He next turned his arms against the old tribes of Cornwall, who had made encroachments in Devonshire, and reduced them to obedience and good order.

This increase of Athelstane's power induced a general confederacy of the Danes and neighbouring princes against him. In the year 934 Anlaf, a Danish prince, who had already been settled in Northumbria, and who had made considerable conquests in Ireland, sailed up the Humber with a fleet of 600 vessels. Anlaf was joined by Constantine, King of the Scots, the people of Strathclyde and Cumbria, and the northern Welsh. This was a formidable coalition, but it was utterly destroyed at Brunnaburgh, where Athelstane gained a great victory, five Danish kings and seven earls falling in the contest. Anlaf fled to Ireland; and after this event Athelstane reigned in peace. It was at this time that he assumed the title of "King of the Anglo-Saxons," or "King of the English."

The fame of Athelstane, both as a monarch and a man of learning, excited the attention of foreign princes, and brought England into closer alliance with them. Three kings were educated at his court — Alan of Bretagne, Louis of France, and Haco of Norway; his sisters were bestowed in marriage on the first sovereigns of that period; and he enjoyed a respect among foreign courts unsurpassed by any living sovereign. As a monarch, his conduct

seems to have been without reproach. He revised the laws, promulgated new ones, made provision for the poor, and encouraged learning. Like Alfred, he was fond of the Bible, and he promoted the translation of it into the language of the people. His life, however, was brief: he died A.D. 940, being then only forty-seven years of age.

EDMUND THE ELDER.

Athelstane was succeeded by his brother Edmund, then not quite eighteen years old, who had scarcely ascended the throne when Anlaf, invited by the Northumbrians, again sailed from Ireland; and the result of the war was, that Edmund was obliged to resign to him, in separate sovereignty, the whole of the island north of Watling Street. Anlaf, however, shortly after died, and then Edmund repossessed himself of the ceded territory. About the same time the people of Cumbria rebelled, and Edmund marched against them, defeated their King Dunmail, and having captured his two sons, barbarously put out their eyes. Edmund did not long survive this atrocious deed. At the festival of St. Augustine, as he was carousing with his nobles and officers, a banished robber, named Leof, dared to mingle with the company. Leof was ordered to depart, but he refused; and when Edmund seized hold of him he stabbed the king mortally with a dagger. (A.D. 946.)

EDRED.

Edred, a younger brother of Edmund, succeeded to the throne. He was not twenty-three years old, and he was afflicted with a disease which had brought on premature old age. Soon after his accession the Danes of Northumbria, being joined by Eric and other princes from Denmark, Norway, Ireland, the Orkneys, and the Hebrides, once more tried the fortune of war with the Saxons. They were unsuccessful; the forces of Edred defeated them, and the Danes in Northumbria were brought under subjection. Edred died soon after the reduction of Northumbria, and was succeeded by the son of Edmund, his brother and predecessor. (A.D. 955.)

EDWY.

Edwy was but fifteen years old when he began to reign. One of the first acts of his government was the appointment of his brother Edgar to be vassal-king of a part of England; probably the old kingdom of Mercia, where he was to acknowledge Edwy's supremacy. Edwy had no armed enemies to oppose, but he had to con-

tend with a body more powerful than the Danes, and who fought with weapons more deadly than the sword.

The authority and influence of the clergy was now, from various causes, rapidly increasing in almost every country in Europe, and in England at this period their influence was the more injurious from the harsh and ambitious character of the men who held some of the highest offices in the church. One of the boldest and fiercest of these ecclesiastics was Dunstan, one of those who —

> "Turn the instruments of good to ill,
> Moulding the credulous people to their will."

He had received his early education in Glastonbury monastery, and been subsequently introduced at the court of Athelstane by his uncle Adhelm, Archbishop of Canterbury. Disgusted with the manners of the court, however, he returned to Glastonbury; and having in early youth received the tonsure, he built for himself a cell or hermitage, with an oratory. In this hermitage he employed his time partly in devotional austeries and partly in making crosses, censers, vestments, &c., for the service of the church. His mode of life gained the favour of Edmund, and he appointed him Abbot of Glastonbury, with full power to draw funds from the royal treasury for its restoration.

Dunstan employed the funds placed at his disposal to further the ends of his ambition, and on the accession of Edwy he determined to subject the young monarch to his rule. An opportunity soon presented itself for the display of his power. On the day of his coronation Edwy left the feast where his nobles were carousing, and resorted to the apartment of Elgiva his wife, whom he had a short time before privately married. His absence was remarked by Odo, Archbishop of Canterbury, who ordered some one to follow him, and to bring him back to the offended company. None moved but Dunstan, but he rushed to the inner apartment, dragged the young king from the side of Elgiva, and thrust him into the banqueting-hall by main force. Nor was this the only insult he put upon Edwy; for while in the chamber Dunstan addressed the queen and her mother, who was present, in the most insolent manner, and threatened the latter with infamy and the gallows.

Dunstan's bold and outrageous conduct naturally excited the wrath of Edwy and his bride. He had been treasurer to Edred, the preceding sovereign; and Edwy, who had suspected his integrity, charged him with peculation in his office, sequestered his property, drove out the monks of Glastonbury, and put in the secular clergy, and, finally, banished Dunstan from the kingdom. Dunstan fled to the monastery of St. Peter's in Ghent; but the

king found a more powerful enemy in Odo. After Dunstan's flight the king made himself the protector of the married clergy, and, incensed at this, Odo not only pronounced a divorce between the king and queen, but seized the queen and branded her in the face with a red-hot iron, to destroy her beauty, and then hurried her to the coast, whence she was transported to Ireland. Elgiva was cured of the cruel wounds inflicted, her scars were obliterated, and she found means to return to England with her beauty unimpaired. It is not clear whether she joined her husband, but it is certain that she was seized near Gloucester by her ferocious persecutors, who caused her to be brutally mangled and hamstrung, which in a few days occasioned her death. Edwy did not long survive his wife, but died, probably from grief, in the following year, A.D. 958

EDGAR.

During the latter part of Edwy's reign Edgar his brother had taken up arms against him, and he now succeeded to all his dignities. Edgar recalled Dunstan, and, as he was but sixteen years of age, he became a passive instrument in the hands of that designing monk and his party. Dunstan ruled absolutely, and was enabled to obtain for the Romish see a despotic power over the clergy before unknown in England. In order to effect this object, the married clergy were excluded from their livings, and monks were appointed to supply their places; and in this attempt Dunstan was supported by Edgar, who overpowered the resistance which the country had long maintained against papal dominion, and gave to the monks an influence, of which the baneful effects were seen and felt till the Reformation.

It cannot be denied, however, that Dunstan and the monks ruled the kingdom with vigour and success. At this period the detached states were consolidated into more compact integrity and union than had ever been known in England before. The fleet of Edgar consisted of about 400 ships; and these ships were so well disposed, that the sea-kings were prevented from landing and troubling the country; and by the advice of Dunstan, who had become Archbishop of Canterbury, the king accustomed himself to visit in person every part of his dominions annually; a practice which made him acquainted with all the nobles and principal men of the kingdom, and mostly had the effect of insuring their obedience.

Edgar assumed the title of Basileus, or Emperor of Albion, King of the English, and of all the nations and islands around. From the circumstance that there were no wars during his reign he was

also styled the Peaceable, or Pacific; but he was of a licentious and cruel character. Several instances of his violence and profligacy are recorded, one of which requires to be noticed.

Hearing of the beauty of Elfrida, a daughter of Ordgar, Earl of Devonshire, he sent Athelwold, one of his nobles, to ascertain if the report were true. Athelwold, however, became himself enamoured of the beauty, married her, and then represented to the king that, though rich, she was not personally attractive. But Edgar either suspected or was told the truth, and he insisted on paying her a visit. Her husband was allowed to precede him, and he besought Elfrida to disguise her beauty. This request was refused; the visit was made; the king captivated; and soon after Athelwold was found murdered in a wood, and Edgar married his widow. This union, begun in crime, led to the murder of Edgar's son; and under Ethelred, the only son he had by Elfrida, the glory of the house of Alfred was eclipsed for ever. Edgar himself did not long survive his marriage: he died at the early age of thirty-two, and was buried in the abbey of Glastonbury, A. D. 975.

Edgar with many vices possessed some popular qualities. He showed great anxiety for the welfare of his people, and by his fleets he protected their coasts; he reformed the coinage, and had new coins issued over all the kingdom; and he commuted a tribute he received from a part of Wales into three hundred heads of wolves annually, in order to extirpate those ravenous animals. He deserves some credit for his public actions; but they were greatly sullied by his private character. Even the monks, who denominate him a godly, virtuous prince, have recorded facts of his life which prove him to have been the most profligate of all the Saxon monarchs.

EDWARD.

Edward, commonly called the Martyr, was Edgar's son by his first marriage. On his accession he was only fourteen years of age; and his rights were disputed by Elfrida, who was an ambitious and remorseless woman, in favour of her own son Ethelred. Edward, however, was crowned and supported by Dunstan; and Elfrida then gave the weight of her son Ethelred's name to the secular clergy, who were headed by Alfere, the powerful governor of Mercia. Dunstan prevailed; but the ambition of Elfrida was not to be thwarted, and she soon placed herself at the head of a powerful confederacy of nobles, who resolved that her son should reign and Dunstan be deprived of his power. Before this confederacy was fully arranged Edward put himself in the power of Elfrida. As he was hunting one day in Dorsetshire he quitted his company and attendants to visit his half-brother Ethelred,

who was living with his mother at Corfe Castle. Elfrida came forth with her son to meet him, bade him welcome with a smiling face, and invited him to dismount. The king declined this invitation, from fear that he should miss his company; but he craved a cup of wine, which he might drink in his saddle to her and his brother. The wine was brought, and as Edward was lifting the cup to his lips one of Elfrida's attendants stabbed him in the back. The wounded king put spurs to his horse, but, soon fainting from loss of blood, he fell out of his saddle, and was dragged by one foot in the stirrup through woods and rugged roads until he was dead. His companions traced him by his blood, and, on finding his disfigured corpse, they burned it, and then buried its ashes at Wareham, without any pomp or regal ceremonies, A.D. 978.

ETHELRED.

Ethelred, who was only ten years of age, had no part in the guilt which gave him a crown. It is related, indeed, that he dearly loved his half-brother, and wept on hearing of his death; whereupon Elfrida, seizing a large torch at hand, beat him with it with a severity that nearly proved fatal. The death of Edward brought such odium, both on Elfrida and her son, that an attempt was made to exclude him from the throne, by substituting Edgitha, Edgar's natural daughter. But Edgitha was a nun, and she resolutely refused to exchange the tranquillity of the cell for the dangers of the throne; and, as there was no other pretender to set up, the prelates and thanes were compelled to crown the son of Edward's murderess. Ethelred was crowned by Dunstan at the festival of Easter, A.D. 979, in the old chapel of Kingston, then the usual crowning-place of the Saxon monarchs; and it is said that Dunstan, in the very act of crowning the young monarch, pronounced a bitter malediction on his head.

Ethelred commenced his reign with the unlucky name of the Unready, from his having been unprepared to drive away the Danes when they attacked him. During the first part of his minority Elfrida enjoyed great authority; but as he advanced in years her influence declined, and she at length retired from court to expiate her sins by building and endowing monasteries. The king himself was vicious and indolent, and civil discords became rife in the country; in the midst of which Dunstan died. About the same time the Danes began again to plunder the coasts; and Siric, Dunstan's successor, unable to excite the nobles to arm in the defence of their country, persuaded Ethelred to purchase their retreat, by the payment of ten thousand pounds. The sea-kings departed for awhile; but in the course of the following year

(A. D. 992) they again returned. A powerful fleet was now fitted out to attack them, and among the leaders appointed were two bishops. The chief command was given to Alfric, Duke of Mercia; but he proved a traitor, for he gave the Danes notice of the measures concerted against them, and joined their fleet with his own ship. The Danes retired; but, being met by a part of the English fleet, Alfric's vessel was captured, and he himself escaped with difficulty.

In the year 993 the Danes again invaded England. Landing in the north, they took Bamborough Castle by storm; and three Danish chiefs, who had been appointed to command the native forces, threw down the standard of Ethelred, and ranged themselves under the raven. In the following year Sweyn, King of Denmark, and Olave, King of Norway, ravaged all the southern provinces of the island; and they also were bought off with money, sixteen thousand pounds of silver being exacted and paid. By a clause in the treaty Olave and some chiefs were bound to embrace the Christian religion; and Olave at least regarded the oath which he took at the font, not again to molest the English, for he never returned. But it was not so with the other Danish chiefs, for during the four following years they continued their invasions, and on their next, returning in force (A. D. 1001), they ravaged the whole kingdom from the Isle of Wight to the Bristol Channel. A large sum was then again paid to purchase peace; twenty-four thousand pounds being raised for them by direct taxation upon land.

In the year 1002 Ethelred married Emma, sister of the Duke of Normandy, and the rejoicings of this marriage were scarcely over when an atrocity was committed which covered the land with blood and horror. In many instances the Danes had been long living peaceably among the Saxons, but on the festival of a Saxon saint named Brita, which was kept on the 13th of November, by the orders of Ethelred they were suddenly attacked, and massacred without distinction of quality, age, or sex. Gunhilda, the sister of Sweyn, King of Denmark, who had embraced Christianity, and was married to an English earl, was beheaded, after witnessing the execution of her husband and son.

Sweyn prepared for a deadly revenge. He assembled a numerous fleet, and with the choicest warriors of his nation embarked for England. The first place where he landed was Exeter, which he plundered and dismantled; and then marched through the country into Wiltshire, his forces committing every excess that a thirst for vengeance and rapine could suggest. At length he was met by an Anglo-Saxon army; but this army was headed by Alfric the Mercian, who had been restored to favour and employ-

ment, and who now again proved a traitor. Pretending to be seized with a sudden illness, he called off his men when they were about to engage, and permitted Sweyn to retire with his army through Salisbury to the sea-coast.

In the following year the Danes captured Norwich, which they plundered and burnt; and the same fate befell almost every town in Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire, and Lincolnshire. In the year 1004 Sweyn returned to the Baltic, but his revenge and rapacity were not yet satisfied. Returning two years afterwards, he carried fire and sword over a great part of the kingdom, and he was only induced to leave the country by the payment of thirty-six thousand pounds in gold. The frequent raising of these sums exhausted the people, whose doors were almost constantly beset by tax-gatherers or Danish marauders. Yet in the year 1008 Ethelred found means to build a large fleet and raise a large army for the defence of the kingdom. But the fleet was rendered useless by treachery at home. Ethelred was governed by one Edric, a man of low birth, who had obtained one of his daughters in marriage, and an appointment to one of the highest offices in the kingdom. Brihtric, the brother of this favourite, conspired against Earl Wulfnoth, and the earl fled, and carried twenty of the new ships with him, with which he plundered all the southern coasts of England. Brihtric pursued him with eighty other ships; but these were wrecked in a storm on the coast: the rest of the fleet dispersed in anarchy and confusion; and thus perished the last hope of keeping back the Danes.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.
832. The Danish pirates land and ravage the Isle of Sheppey.
834. Egbert defeats the Danes and Britons of Cornwall at Hengsdown Hill.
875. The Danes under Halfdane settle Northumbria.
878. Alfred defeats the Danes, and their chief Guthrun is baptised as a Christian.
886. Alfred rebuilds and fortifies London.
994. A wooden bridge built across the Thames.
1008. London taken by the Danes and the bridge destroyed, but the city retaken.

CHAP. V.

THE DANISH CONQUEST.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.
Ethelred II.	Grimus	Louis V.	...
987. ...	Malcolm II.	Hugh Capet	...
...	...	...	Henry II.
1016. Edmund Ironside	...	Robert the Pious	...
	...	...	Conrad II.
1017. Canute the Great	Duncan I.	...	...
	...	Henry I.	...
1036. Harold Harefoot	Macbeth	...	Henry III.
1040. Hardicanute	...	...	...
1042. Edward the Confessor	Malcolm III.	...	Henry IV.
	...	Philip I.	...
1066. Harold II.	...	...	...

THE Saxon dynasty now drew near to a close. No sooner had the intelligence of the destruction of Ethelred's fleet reached the Baltic, than "Thurkill's host" set sail for England. For three years this host devastated the country, and at the end of that time the Danes had made themselves masters of a large part of the kingdom. Truces were sold by them to the Saxons for gold, but they never again evinced any intention of leaving the island. Ethelred's difficulties were great, for he had not a single officer on whom he could depend; all were base and cowardly, and the only act of courage and firmness recorded was performed by a churchman.

The Danes had laid siege to Canterbury, and that city was defended by Alphege the archbishop. For twenty days he maintained it against them, but at the end of that time its gates were opened by a traitor. Alphege was made prisoner, and loaded with chains; but the Danes pressed him to purchase his liberty and life with gold; a sum was mentioned, and when he refused to obtain it from the people, they proposed to take a smaller, if Alphege would engage to advise the king to pay them a further amount as a largess. The noble archbishop still refused; and when the Danes, more covetous of money than blood, renewed their demands, he

remarked, "You press me in vain: I am not the man to provide Christian flesh for Pagan teeth, by robbing my poor countrymen to enrich their enemies." The Danes at length lost their patience. One day, when at a drunken banquet, they caused him to be dragged before them, and as they gathered round him, in menacing attitudes, they exclaimed, "Gold, bishop; give us gold! gold!" Alphege still refused, and the Danes, running to a heap of bones, horns, and jaw-bones, the remains of their coarse feast, they threw them at him until he was almost dead. A Danish pirate, whom Alphege had baptised with his own hand, then seized his battle-axe, and put an end to his life.

The noble example of the archbishop had no effect upon Ethelred, for he still continued to pay gold. Thurkill demanded and received forty-eight thousand pounds and the cession of several counties, and thereupon he took the oaths of peace, and became, with many of his chiefs, Ethelred's ally. Sweyn, the Danish king, affected to consider this compact as treason to himself, and he prepared a fresh expedition, resolving on the complete conquest of our island. His fleet sailed up the Humber, and he landed in the vicinity of York. The Danes advanced into the country, wasting it by fire and sword; and they were joined continually by Danish settlers, and even by the Anglo-Saxons. Leaving his fleet to the care of his son Canute, Sweyn marched to the south, and Oxford, Winchester, and other important towns opened their gates to him. The determined valour of the citizens of London, however, obliged him to retire from thence, and he turned to the west, where he was received with open arms. He made his head-quarters at Bath; and thither all the nobles of Devonshire repaired to do him homage as their sovereign. London, too, at length revolted; and in this general defection Ethelred, who had taken refuge in that city, fled to the Isle of Wight, and thence to the court of the Duke of Normandy at Rouen, leaving Sweyn master of his kingdom, A.D. 1013.

Sweyn was now acknowledged "full king of England;" but he did not long enjoy his conquest; in about six weeks after his final triumph he died suddenly, and Ethelred was invited by the Saxon nobles and prelates, by whom he had been "abandoned, deserted, and betrayed," to return and take possession of his kingdom. Before venturing himself, Ethelred sent his son Edward, with solemn promises and assurances, and pledges were then given for the faithful performance of the compact between the king and the people, and a sentence of outlawry pronounced against every Danish chief. Before the end of Lent Ethelred was restored to his dominions, but in the meantime the Danish army in England had proclaimed Canute king of the country, and prepared to support

his pretensions. A sanguinary war ensued; and Ethelred was fast falling before the power of his enemy, when he died, A.D. 1016.

EDMUND IRONSIDE.

On the death of Ethelred, setting aside his legitimate children, the Saxons chose for their king his natural son Edmund, surnamed Ironside. Edmund had given many proofs of his courage in the field and wisdom in the council; but the country was too much worn out and divided to permit his restoring the independence of the Saxon power, and, after fighting five battles, and twice relieving London when besieged by Canute, Edmund proposed that he and his rival should decide their claims in a single combat. Canute declined the duel, and said that it would be wiser and better for them to divide England between them; a proposal that was received with joy by both armies, and it was agreed that Canute should reign over the north and Edmund Ironside over the south, with a nominal superiority over the Danes' portion. But Edmund did not long survive this treaty; about two months after he died suddenly; but whether his death was natural, or he was cut off by assassination, is not certain.

CANUTE.

On the death of his rival Canute called a great council of the bishops and nobles at London, and before them appealed to those who had been witnesses to the convention between him and Ironside, and called upon them to state upon what terms the compact was concluded. Intimidated by force, or won by promises, they all testified that Edmund never intended to reserve any right of succession to his brothers, and that it was even his wish that Canute should be the guardian of his children. All took an oath of fidelity to Canute as King of England; and he in return swore to be just and benevolent, and he clasped their hands with his naked hand in token of sincerity.

Canute promised a full amnesty; but the words had scarcely passed from his lips when he began to proscribe those whom he had promised to cherish. All the Saxon chiefs who had formerly opposed him, and the relations of Edmund and Ethelred, were banished or put to death; the Witenagemot, or Parliament, which had recently passed the same sentence against the Danish princes, seconding his measures. They declared Edwy, the brother of Ironside an outlaw; and when he was murdered by the command of Canute, they acknowledged the justice of the deed. The two infant sons of the deceased, Edmund and Edward, were sent to Canute's ally and vassal the King of Sweden, with a request to

dispose of them in such a manner as should remove all uneasiness on his part on their account. Canute meant that they should be destroyed; but the Swedish king, moved by their innocence, sent them to the King of Hungary, who had them brought up with affectionate care.

There were yet two princes whose claims to the crown might some day disquiet Canute, but they were in Normandy. These were Edward and Alfred, the sons of King Ethelred by Emma, on whose behalf their uncle, the Duke of Normandy, demanded the restitution of the kingdom; but, though his power was great, he adopted no measures to induce Canute to surrender the crown, and shortly afterwards he not only entered into close friendship with the Dane, but offered him the mother of his nephews and his own sister in marriage; and Canute was married accordingly to Emma, the wife of Ethelred, whose throne he had subverted.

Having thus disposed of all who could occasion him fear or suspicion, Canute assumed a mild tone towards his new subjects, and to some extent succeeded in obtaining their good-will; so that they followed him willingly to foreign wars, in which they fought bravely for the enslaving of other nations. Canute's last expedition was against the Cumbrians and Scots, who refused to do him homage, on the ground that he was a usurper; but they were ultimately compelled to submit to his power. (A.D. 1017–19.)

The country being now at peace, Canute reigned with milder sway; the latter part of his reign was marked with no acts of cruelty, the people were happier than they had been since the days of Alfred and Athelstane; and he was cheerful and accessible to all his subjects, without distinction either of race or nation. He held at this time the crowns of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, besides that of England. Perhaps the means by which he gained the greater part of his popularity was his patronage of the scalds, minstrels, and gleemen, who were the poets and musicians of that time. He took pleasure in songs and ballads, of which both Danes and Saxons were passionately fond, and a ballad of his own composing continued for a long time to be a favourite with the English peasantry.

Yet Canute was not happy. The blood he had shed and the crimes he had committed filled him with remorse; and, to appease his conscience, he became a friend of monks and a founder of churches and monasteries. In the year 1030 he determined to make a pilgrimage to Rome, and started on his journey with a wallet on his back and a pilgrim's staff in his hand. Returning from Rome, where he had resided some time, he visited Denmark to settle disturbances in that country, and then returned to England about the year 1032; but three years after his re-

turn from Rome he died at Shaftesbury, and was buried at Winchester, A. D. 1035.

The power of Canute as a monarch is well illustrated by an often-repeated anecdote. When at the height of his power, and when all things seemed to bend to his lordly will, Canute, one day disgusted with the flattery of his courtiers, determined to read them a practical lesson. He caused his throne to be conveyed to the verge of the sea as the tide was rolling in with resistless might, and seating himself on it, he exclaimed: "Ocean! the land on which I sit is my dominion, and thou art part of my dominion — therefore, rise not; obey my commands, nor presume to wet the edge of my robe." But the sea still rolled on its course; succeeding waves broke nearer and nearer to his feet, till at length the skirts of his garment and his legs were bathed by the waters. Rising from his seat, and turning to his courtiers, Canute exclaimed: "Confess now how frivolous and vain is the might of an earthly king compared to that Great Power who rules the elements, and who alone can say unto the ocean, 'Thus far shalt thou go and no further.'" It is added by the chroniclers, that Canute then took off his crown, and, depositing it in the Cathedral of Winchester, never wore it again.

HAROLD I.

On his decease Canute had directed that Harold, his natural son, should reign in England, Sweyn in Norway, and Hardicanute in Denmark; and Sweyn and Hardicanute were both in the north of Europe when their father died, and apparently in possession of power. The powerful Earl Godwin and the Saxons of the south wished to choose one of Ethelred's sons as king; or at least Hardicanute, who was the son of Emma, and therefore connected with the old Saxon line; and civil war seemed imminent, when it was determined that the matter should be settled by Parliament. That assembly met at Oxford, and determined that Harold should have all the provinces north of the Thames, with London for his capital, while Hardicanute should rule south of that river.

Hardicanute, however, showed no anxiety to leave Denmark, and his mother and Earl Godwin governed in his behalf, having their court at Winchester, while Harold took measures for attaching the provinces of the south to his dominions. Two fruitless invasions from Normandy favoured his design. The first of these invasions was headed by Edward, the eldest son of Ethelred, who landed at Southampton; but was opposed by his own mother Emma, and compelled to return to Normandy. Soon after this Alfred, the second son, disembarked opposite to Canterbury, probably about Herne Bay, from whence he marched to Guildford.

It would appear that Alfred was supported by Earl Godwin; but he and his followers were seized at Guildford by the forces of Harold, and, with the exception of every tenth man, they were all massacred. Alfred was hurried away to London, and from thence to Ely, where he was arraigned before a mock court as a disturber of the peace, and barbarously condemned to lose his eyes. He died a few days after from the anguish he endured, and shortly after his death Emma was either sent out of the kingdom by Harold, or retired as a voluntary exile.

Harold was now proclaimed "full king" over all the island, though great opposition was offered by the church to his pretensions. Ethelnoth, the Archbishop of Canterbury, declared that he would not crown him, and that no bishop should consecrate him on his throne; and it is said, that on this Harold put the crown on his own head: but other authorities assert that he was never crowned at all. He did not reign long over England, however, for he died in four years, and was buried at Westminster, A.D. 1040.

HARDICANUTE.

When Harold died, Hardicanute was at Bruges, and on the point of invading England; but a deputation of English and Danish thanes now arrived to invite him to ascend the throne. Hardicanute readily consented; but the thanes were soon made to repent inviting him over, for he brought with him a great number of Danish chiefs and courtiers, and an expensive Danish army and navy; to support which he resorted to oppressive levies on all classes of people. These levies were collected by his household troops, which caused frequent commotions.

Hardicanute spent most of his time in gluttony and intemperance; and the authority of his government was divided between Earl Godwin and Emma, the queen-mother, who were in friendly alliance with him. While they ruled he enjoyed the things he most prized in life—his banquets by day, and his carousals at night. His death was in keeping with the tenor of his life. At the marriage-feast of one of his Danish thanes at Clapham he stood up to pledge the company, but fell down senseless, with the cup in his hand, and was removed to an inner chamber, where he died. He was buried in the church of Winchester, A.D. 1042.

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.

The people of England were now tired of the Danish princes; and an assembly of nobles and prelates chose for their sovereign Edward, the surviving son of Ethelred. During his brief reign

Hardicanute had recalled Edward to England, and had treated him with honour and affection, and on the death of Hardicanute he was assisted to the throne by the "king-maker" of the age, Earl Godwin, who also induced him to marry his daughter Editha. The fair Editha, who appears to have been endowed with many excellent qualities, became Queen of England, but Edward was a bad husband to her; for he first neglected and then persecuted her, as he did also the queen-mother Emma, to whom he behaved with great harshness up to the day of her death, which happened in the year 1052.

In the second year of Edward's reign a feeble attempt was made by Magnus, King of Norway and Denmark, to re-establish the Scandinavian supremacy in England; but Edward assembled a great fleet at Sandwich, and Magnus being overawed, was induced to declare that he would let Edward enjoy his crown in peace, and content himself with the kingdoms which God had given him.

Edward reigned now nominally as king; but his authority was of very limited extent, for a great part of England was really governed by a few nobles who possessed within their territories all the most valuable attributes of sovereignty. Earl Godwin and his six sons ruled the whole south and south-eastern part of England from Cornwall to Lincolnshire; the authority of the great Earl Siward extended from the Humber to the borders of Scotland; and Leofric, Earl of Leicester, held the midland counties. These rulers were, however, for the most part, men of ability; and as the mild and equitable proceedings of Edward made him popular, all was for some time peaceable throughout England.

There were, nevertheless, circumstances which neutralised Edward's popularity and gave the favourable colour of nationality and patriotism to the conduct of Godwin whenever he chose to pick a quarrel with the king. Edward was only thirteen years of age when he was sent to Normandy, and he had imbibed an affection for the Normans, many of whom resorted to his court. This gave rise to an accusation of favouritism, especially as the French language and manners were introduced at his court, and it was said that he loved French, or "Romance," better than Anglo-Saxon. The charge against Edward may have been just, for many Normans were promoted to the highest offices both in church and state; and the Saxon nobles who hoped to prosper at court learned to speak French and imitate the manners, dress, and fashions of the Normans. All this, however, was distasteful to the Saxon people, and to Earl Godwin especially, so that he probably only sought for an opportunity to break with the king; an opportunity that soon offered itself.

Among the foreigners who visited Edward was Eustace, Count of

Boulogne, who had married Goda, Edward's sister. Eustace was hospitably entertained at the court of Edward, and seeing everything French and foreign preferred before what was Saxon, he was led to despise the Saxons as a people already conquered. On his return home Eustace and his followers entered Dover, armed in coats of mail, marched insolently through the town, and took free quarters among the citizens without asking permission. One of the townsmen repelled a retainer from his threshold; on which the stranger drew his sword and wounded him. In the fray which followed the Frenchman was slain, and on hearing this Count Eustace and his troop surrounded the house, and, forcing their way in, murdered the Englishman on his own hearth. On retiring they assaulted all who came in their way. These outrages, however, roused the spirit of the citizens; they armed themselves, met Eustace and his followers in a mass, and after a fierce conflict nineteen Frenchmen were slain.

Eustace and those who escaped the slaughter fled to Gloucester to lay their complaints before the king; and Edward sent directions to Godwin, in whose government the city lay, instantly to chastise with the sword those who had dared to attack his relations. But Godwin replied: "It ill becomes the king, to condemn the men whom it is his duty to protect, without a hearing;" and, instead of chastising the burghers, he took their part. Edward summoned him to appear before his court at Gloucester on pain of banishment and confiscation; and Godwin replied by arming and marching at the head of all the forces south of the Thames against Edward. He was joined by his sons Harold and Sweyn, and they concentrated their forces near Gloucester, then the royal residence. Godwin demanded that Eustace and his companions should be given up to the justice of the nation; and, to gain time for resistance, Edward opened a negotiation. Godwin granted the delay he required; and then Edward, who had secured the good-will of Siward, Earl of Northumberland, and Leofric, Earl of Mercia, applied to them for protection. They came with forces superior in number to those of Godwin, and the two armies marched to battle. But the people had improved in wisdom. Old animosities between the Anglo-Danes and the Saxons had died away, and the armies mutually determined not to draw their swords. An armistice was then concluded between the king and Godwin, in which it was agreed to refer all differences to an assembly of the legislature to be held at London in the following autumn.

In the meantime the king published a ban for the levying of a royal army all over the kingdom. A large body of forces were collected within and about London, and the chief commands in it were given to the Normans. At the appointed time Earl Godwin

was summoned to appear before Parliament in the midst of his deadly enemies, and without any military escort; but he declined to attend unless proper securities were given for his safety. This demand was refused, and Edward and the assembly then decreed that the earl and his family should quit England for ever within five days. Godwin was at the time at Southwark with only a small force, and even this was thinned by hourly desertion, and he and his family at last fled for their lives. With his wife and three sons he sailed for Flanders; while Harold and his brother Leofwin crossed the sea to Ireland.

Edward took a severe and unjust revenge. He confiscated all the property of Godwin and his sons, which he distributed, with their governments and honours, chiefly among foreigners; and his revenge even extended itself to his wife, the daughter of Godwin. He seized her dower; took from her all her jewels and money, and confined her in the monastery of Wherwell, where "in tears and prayers she expected the day of her release and comfort."

The Normans were now more favoured than before. Shoals of them flocked over to make their fortunes in England, and William, their reigning duke, who probably already entertained projects on the country, at the invitation of Edward visited his court with a large retinue. The throne seemed open to him, for the king had no children, and the only heir was a youth in Hungary. Duke William, who was, moreover, connected with Edward by the ties of marriage as well as of friendship, received a hearty welcome, and after his departure the Normans in England assumed a superiority over the Saxons still more haughtily than before.

Preparations were in progress, however, for the interruption of the Norman domination. Ever since his flight, Earl Godwin had been preparing for his triumphant return by raising troops and carrying on negotiations with the Saxons at home; and in the year 1052, having got together a number of ships, he fell upon the southern coast, where many Saxons gave him a hearty welcome. Hosts of people took up arms, binding themselves by oath to live or die with him. On the Sussex coast he was met by his sons Harold and Leofwin with ships from Ireland; and they sailed together to the Isle of Wight, and thence to Sandwich, where they landed part of their forces, and with the rest doubled the North Foreland and sailed up the Thames towards London. As they advanced the popularity of their cause was made manifest; the troops of the king went over to them, and the burghers and peasants supplied them with provisions. On their arrival at Southwark everything was thrown into confusion, for the court party soon saw that the citizens of London were well affected to Godwin. The earl sent a message to the king, requesting the reversion of the

sentence of exile and the restoration of his confiscated territories, honours, and employments; but Edward sternly refused to comply, and menaced Godwin with a considerable army on the opposite bank. The Normans pressed him to give the signal for attack, but the royal troops refused to fight; and the arguments of the priest Stigand and some Saxon nobles finally induced the king to yield. The Normans now fled, with what property they could collect, in all directions; a national council was summoned; and Godwin solemnly made oath that he was guiltless of the crimes laid to his charge. The property, honours, and employments of himself and his sons were restored; and a sentence of exile was pronounced against all the Normans and French. As a completion of his triumph, Editha his daughter was removed from her monastic prison and restored to the court and to her honours as queen.

Godwin did not long survive this victory over his sovereign. A short time after their feigned reconciliation, as Godwin sat at table with Edward at Windsor, the king reproached him with his brother Alfred's murder, of which he had been always suspected. It is said that Godwin took a piece of bread, and desired that it might choke him if he were guilty; on which he fell speechless to the ground. He was borne by his sons to an inner chamber, where he lingered for three days in great agony of body and mind, and then departed to stand before the Judge of all men.

Godwin was succeeded in his territories and commands by his son Harold, who became even more powerful than his father had been. His power was soon made manifest. The command of East Anglia, which he had vacated on succeeding to his father's earldom, had been bestowed upon Algar the son of Leofric, the hereditary enemy of the house of Godwin; and Algar was now driven by Harold into the mountains and morasses of Wales, though he still showed himself so powerful that Harold was obliged to treat with him. Algar was allowed to return; but the jealousy of Harold being again excited, he was once more driven from his territories. This time he fled into Ireland, whence he soon returned, however, and was again enabled to recover his earldoms, which he held, in defiance of Harold, till his death, which happened about a year after, A. D. 1059.

About this time Harold's power was augmented by the death of Siward, Earl of Northumbria, whose territories were given to Tostig, the brother of Harold. It was also further increased by a successful campaign against the Welsh, who had inflamed the hatred of the Saxon people by recent forays and cruel murders. In 1063 Harold was commissioned to carry extreme measures into effect against the Welsh; and he gained a succession of victories, which reduced the mountaineers to such despair, that they slew their

King Griffith, and sent his head to Harold in token of submission. Hostages were given to Edward and Harold, and the victorious earl returned, in a sort of Roman triumph, to his sovereign.

The reign of Edward now drew near to a close. He had long suffered from bodily infirmities, and these daily increasing, it soon became evident that the hand of death was upon him. He died early in January, 1065, and all that remained of the last Saxon king of the race of Cerdic and Alfred was interred with great pomp and solemnity on the festival of Epiphany, within the walls of Westminster Abbey, which he had recently built.

The character of Edward the Confessor is one that will be variously judged, according to the point of view from which it is regarded.

His narrow and ascetic devotion, his anxious and scrupulous observance of every ordinance imposed upon him in the name of religion, his tendency to superstition, and his boundless credulity, as well as his large benefactions to the church, were all in conformity with the ideas of virtue and piety which belonged to the age.

He was a steady and consistent lover of peace, and an enemy to all violence and oppression; at a time when war was considered the only object worthy a king's attention, he sought to establish the mild empire of the law; the code he compiled was then and afterwards highly esteemed by the people; he had the merit of abolishing the oppressive tax called Danegelt, and he is known to have expressed strong disapprobation of the harsh measures by which money was sometimes wrung from his subjects. His imagination was so strongly affected indeed by his anxiety on the subject, that one day when he was looking at some heaps of money that had just been brought into his treasury, he declared he saw evil spirits leaping and exulting about it, and immediately ordered it to be restored to the people. Such acts as these obtained for him canonization from the Church of Rome.

HAROLD II.

As Edward the Confessor was childless, it had been his intention to appoint his only surviving nephew Edward, the son of Edmund Ironside, as his successor to the throne of England, and with this view he had sent for him from Hungary; but the nephew died soon after, leaving a son, Edgar Atheling, who was a weak-minded youth, and unfit to reign. There being consequently no heir to the throne with superior pretensions, Harold was proclaimed

king in a vast assembly of the chiefs and nobles, and of the citizens of London, and afterwards solemnly crowned.

There was, however, a competition for the kingdom, arising from a dispute concerning the person to whom Edward was said to have bequeathed it. Some writers assert that on his dying bed, and in the presence of Harold, he named William of Normandy as his heir; others, that the heir appointed was Harold himself. A story is also related, on good authority, of an occurrence that made the question still more difficult.

Previous to the death of Edward, Harold one day embarked for recreation in a fishing-boat, taking with him but few attendants, and he was driven by a storm to the coast of Normandy. He was wrecked, or stranded, near the mouth of the River Somme, in the territory of Guy, Count of Ponthieu, who seized the wreck as his right, and made the passengers his prisoners until they should pay a ransom for their release. Harold made known his condition to William, Duke of Normandy, who instantly demanded that Harold should be released and sent to his court. But this apparently kind action arose neither from friendship nor compassion, for he demanded, as the price of his mediation for his release, that Harold should, on the death of Edward, assist him in obtaining the throne of England; and being in the power of William, Harold, it is said, took an oath to that effect before a grand council of the barons and head men of Normandy. The sanctity of an oath in those days was so frequently disregarded, that sundry plans had been invented, such as swearing upon the host, or consecrated wafer, and upon the relics of saints and martyrs, to render oaths more binding; and as Harold would not have taken such an oath as this, William resorted to a device, by which such an oath was obtained without Harold being aware of it.

He caused the bones and relics of saints in all the churches and monasteries in the country to be collected and deposited in a large tub, which was placed in the council-chamber, and concealed under a cloth-of-gold. The missal on which Harold took the oath was laid upon this cloth-of-gold, and on the conclusion of the ceremony the missal was removed, and the cloth taken off, when Harold saw that his promise had been made upon the relics and bones of saints. It is said that he was alarmed, but durst not retract; and William having, as he thought, made surety doubly sure, loaded Harold with presents, and permitted him to depart.

Harold, however, if he took the oath, did not keep it, for on the death of Edward he ascended the throne of England. He obtained a crown, but he soon found that it was a crown of thorns.

When William heard of the death of Edward and the accession of Harold he was in his hunting-grounds at Rouen. On a sudden

he was observed to be very thoughtful, and, giving his bow to one of his followers, he hurried to his palace, where he strode the apartments with such energy, and looked so fierce and agitated, that for some time no one dared to approach him. At length an officer of rank, who had long enjoyed his confidence, advanced towards him, and thus addressed him: "My lord, where is the use of hiding your news from us? It is reported that the King of England is dead, and that Harold has seized the kingdom, regardless of his oath to you." "It is true," replied the duke; "my spite comes from the death of Edward, and the wrong that Harold has done me." "Well, sire," rejoined the courtier, "for the death of Edward there is no help; but there is one for the wrongs of Harold. Justice is on your side, and you have good soldiers; undertake boldly: 'a thing well begun is half done.'" William thereupon recovered from his reverie, and agreed that ambassadors should be sent forthwith to England.

An embassy was sent to Harold demanding the crown, reminding him of his solemn oath, and threatening to invade the kingdom. Harold, however, refused to vacate the throne to which the people had called him, and made no scruple about his oath: it was extorted he said, and therefore could not be binding. William now proceeded to collect troops, offering good pay to every tall, robust man who would serve him with the lance, the sword, or the cross-bow. Multitudes flocked to him from all parts; from Maine, Anjou, Poitou, Bretagne, Flanders, Aquitaine, Burgundy, Piedmont, and from the banks of the Rhine. Of these some were knights and chiefs, and others foot-soldiers; some demanded regular pay in money, others merely their passage across the Channel and all the booty they might make. William was aided in his preparations for war by the Church of Rome. The Pope sent a bull, justifying the expedition, and a consecrated banner, which was to float over it; and the matrons of Normandy sent their sons to enrol themselves under it for the health of their souls. This licence from the Pope to invade England was obtained on the condition that the Norman duke, when he had conquered it, should hold it as a fief of the church.

The first storm of war, however, that fell upon England in the days of Harold did not proceed from Normandy, for while William was making his preparations Harold had to encounter Tostig, his own brother. Tostig had been expelled from the government of Northumbria for his rapacity and cruelty, and Harold, convinced of his crimes, had agreed with the Northumbrians that Morcar, the son of Earl Algar, should govern them in his stead. This inflamed the resentment of Tostig, and being assisted by the Duke of Normandy, he commenced hostilities with a few ships on the

coasts of Sussex and Lincolnshire, but was defeated by the Earls of Mercia and Northumbria, and took refuge in Scotland. He endeavoured to persuade the king of that country to aid him, and failing in this, he sailed to the Baltic, to invite Sweyn, the King of Denmark, to the conquest of our island. Sweyn declined: but Harold Hadrada, King of Norway, accepted the invitation, and set sail with a fleet consisting of about 500 ships.

The King of Norway and Tostig landed their forces at Riccall, or Richale, not far from the city of York; were joined by many in that part of the country, and were enabled to defeat the northern earls in a battle on the banks of the Ouse. The invaders entered York but a few days after their landing, but Harold advanced to oppose them. Hadrada drew up his forces at Stamford Bridge, and a fierce battle was fought, in which the arms of Harold prevailed. Hadrada fell, with nearly all his chiefs; and the greater part of his men; Tostig also was slain; and the Norwegian fleet fell into the hands of the conqueror.

Three days after this victory the Normans landed in the south. Harold received the news as he was sitting at table with the citizens of York, and he was soon on his way to London. His forces had suffered greatly in the recent battle, and on his route they were further weakened by desertion and the fatigues of the march. This was unfavourable for his cause, and the enemies he now had to encounter were most formidable.

William had set sail for England with 3000 vessels, of which several hundreds were of a superior order; and this fleet had come to anchor on the Sussex coast without meeting with any resistance; for Harold's ships, which had long cruised on that coast, had been called elsewhere, or had returned into port through want of pay and provisions. Thus favoured by circumstances, William landed and marched to Hastings, near to which town he traced a fortified camp and established his army. From this camp detachments were sent into the neighbouring country, which pillaged and burned the houses; and, irritated by the ravages committed by the invaders, Harold, who had received some reinforcements, marched for the Sussex coast by night, only six days after his arrival in London. His forces were inferior in numbers to those of William; but he hoped that he should be able to fall upon his enemy suddenly, and thus gain a victory. But William was too much on the alert to be taken by surprise; and when the English army arrived at Senlac, since called Battle, Harold found that his approach was known to the enemy.

Harold now changed his plan. He surrounded his camp with ditches and palisades, and there waited the attack of his rival. A whole day was passed in fruitless negotiation: William required

that Harold should do one of three things,—resign the crown, submit to the arbitration of the Pope, or decide the quarrel by single combat. Harold refused his assent to either of these proposals; and subsequently he refused an offer from William of all the country beyond the River Humber.

A battle was inevitable; but the night preceding it was spent by the two armies in a very different manner. While the English feasted and rejoiced, singing their old national songs, and emptying their horn cups, the Normans looked to their arms and their horses, and passed the night in acts of devotion. Morning dawned, and the leaders prepared for battle. William arranged his troops, wearing round his neck some of the relics over which Harold had taken his oath. The whole army was divided into three columns of attack: the third, composed of Normans, and including many nobles, being headed by the duke in person. Preparations being made, William animated his soldiers by an impressive address, and then led them forward to battle. The Normans shouted, "God is our help;" while the watchword of the English was, "The holy cross." The English infantry were armed with battle-axes, and were arranged in a compact and wedge-like body. On these the Norman bowmen and cross-bowmen made no impression, and when their cavalry charged, the battle-axe of the English broke the lances, and cut the coats of mail, on which the Normans relied, and they were obliged to retire. The duke then threw forward all his archers, and supported them by a charge of cavalry; but though the English line was at first broken, the assailants were thrown back to a trench covered over with bushes and grass, where numbers perished. For a moment there was a general panic: a cry was raised that the duke was killed, and a flight commenced. William, however, restored order; and as he could not hope to break the line of English infantry by a direct attack, he had recourse to stratagem. A body of cavalry charged and feigned to retreat, and the English, leaving their positions to follow them, were surprised in their disorder, and assailed on every side by swords and lances. This stratagem was repeated in another part of the field with the same success, and many hundreds of the English were slain. Still the main body retained its position behind the stakes and palisades on the ridge of the hill; and such was their courage, that the Normans were obliged to try the stratagem the third time. Again they succeeded; and when the English were disordered the Norman horse and foot burst into the enclosure, and broke the line in several points. But still the victory was undecided. Harold was surrounded by the remains of his broken phalanx, which defied all the power of the Normans. As a last effort, William directed his archers to point their arrows

upward, that they might fall upon the heads of the English. This was fatal to Harold; he was struck by an arrow, which entered his left eye, and penetrated his brain. The English then gave way; but they only retreated to their standard, which they sought to defend. Desperate efforts were made by the Normans to seize the banner, and at length a band of twenty threw themselves into the ranks, and succeeded, after ten of their number had perished. At this rallying point Gurth and Leofwin, the brothers of Harold, perished; and after this the English troops, broken and dispirited, dispersed through the woods which lay in the rear of their position, The Normans followed them by the light of the moon, but the English slew many of their pursuers, and they soon gave up the chase.

Such was the battle of Hastings, which decided the fate of Saxon England. By this battle, indeed, William did not gain a fourth part of England; his wars for the conquest of the west, the north, and the east were protracted for seven long years. The battle, though lost, had been nobly fought on the part of England. All the Norman writers express their admiration of the valour of the foe; and most of them confess that the great superiority of his forces alone enabled William to obtain the victory. But it is not always by numbers that victory is obtained; and it would rather appear that a special Providence opened the way for William to succeed to the throne. The arrow which entered the eye of Harold was as surely charged with a commission as the Syrian shaft that struck Ahab. His days were numbered.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.
981. Southampton plundered by the Danes, and its inhabitants taken for slaves.
993. A Danish host lands and takes Bamborough Castle by storm.
1002. The Danes throughout England massacred at the Feast of St. Brita, November 13th.
1009. The Danes called Thurkill's Host ravage Kent, and murder Alphege, Archbishop of Canterbury.
1039. Duncan, King of Scots, murdered by Macbeth.
1066. The battle of Hastings.

CHAP. VI.

THE GOVERNMENT, LAWS, ETC. OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

The Government, &c. — THE annals of the Saxons are so imperfect, that it would be impossible to state exactly what were the prerogatives of the crown or the privileges of the people after their settlement in Britain. The Anglo-Saxon government seems to have been a kind of aristocracy, and it is certain that the laws were made by the king and a national assembly or parliament, composed of the nobility, dignitaries of the church, and freeholders possessing a certain portion of land. This was called the Witenagemot, or "the meeting of the wise men."

In the earlier period of the Saxon domination the kings were elected by the chiefs and priests, but by degrees attention to hereditary succession became general, though a son or a nephew was frequently set aside for a chief possessing greater power. At the coronation of the Saxon kings the public service had many references to Scripture history and principles, and distinctly sought the blessing of God, by whom alone kings reign. The kings had considerable privileges and powers, but they were only supreme chiefs among other rulers, and not such monarchs as now reign over Europe. Their authority gradually increased, being supported by the popes, but it varied with their personal characters; and down to the latest period they were assisted by the advice of influential noblemen.

Castes. — Like the other Teutonic nations, the Anglo-Saxons were divided into various castes. The highest of these was that out of which their kings were taken; a race said to have been descended from the deified monarch of the Asi, Odin, or Woden. The second great caste among the Anglo-Saxons was that of the nobility, who bore the title of eorls or thanes. These were a numerous body of men, comprehending all the considerable landholders in England. They were the descendants and representatives of the ancient German companions of their princes. In war they constituted the flower of the armies, and in times of peace they swelled the trains of their monarchs, or resided on their estates. From this body all the chief officers, both civil and military, were taken. The third caste was composed of the remainder of the people, and consisted of the ceorls, or villains. The distinctions between the eorl and ceorl were strongly marked. Thus, the

declaration of one eorl was equal to that of six ceorls; and the life of one eorl was equal in value to that of six ceorls. The ceorl, or villain, was a tenant of the glebe; one who, performing prædial or agricultural services, was unable to depart from the land which he held, and who had acquired a definite and recognised estate in the soil. The ceorl was in some sense free; he could be given and bequeathed, bought and sold, but he could not be separated from his land: those who bought the ceorl must purchase the estate on which he resided. So long as he performed his services he could not be removed, nor was a higher rent or a greater proportion of labour to be exacted from him than what was usual. That the rights of the thane over the ceorl were limited and certain is proved by the fact that he could purchase his own freedom and that of his wife and children: he therefore had the means of acquiring wealth.

There were, however, slaves among the Saxons, called theowes (the Servi of Domesday), who were destitute of political rights, and whose condition was similar to that of a modern negro slave. Some of these theowes were the offspring of British serfs; but the greater portion of them were freemen who had forfeited their liberty by crimes. Slavery continued in England as long as the Saxons were heathens, and for some time after they were converted to Christianity; and slaves formed a very numerous class in the community, though they did not rank among the people.

Divisions of the Country.—Little is known of the territorial divisions of the Anglo-Saxons. It seems certain, however, that the division of the country into counties, hundreds, and tithings goes back to the time of the settlement of the Saxons in England. Over each of these divisions there presided a magistrate: over the county a count, earl, or alderman; over the hundred a centenary, or hundreden; and over the tithing a decanus, or tithing-man. Each of these officers held a court, in which justice was administered and the affairs of the district discussed and settled. These courts were subordinate to one another: from the decision of the tithing there was an appeal to the hundred; and from that of the hundred an appeal to the shire.

Laws.—The criminal laws of the Anglo-Saxons were very mild, and the leading principle in the Saxon legislature was that of pecuniary compensation rather than of bodily infliction, for the punishment of crimes. A compensation in money or kind was sufficient for the murder even of persons of rank, not excepting the king or the archbishop, whose life, by the laws of Kent, was estimated higher than the king's. It was considered by them that the death of a man could not repair the evils he had occasioned,

and it was a common maxim among them, "Unwillingly offend, willingly amend."

The general principles of the Saxon laws display great justice and equity, and there were among them laws inforcing mercy to animals and the observance of the Sabbath as a day of rest from worldly labours. Trial by jury originated among them, and was applied to civil as well as criminal cases. Twelve men of honest and good report were chosen to decide disputes after hearing the statements of both parties. The witnesses were examined upon oath, and the punishment for perjury was very severe. Some questions were decided by the Witenagemot, or Parliament, and others by the courts above mentioned. Before the trial by jury was established persons were tried by ordeals. The usual course was for the accused person to plunge his hand into boiling water, or to carry a hot iron a certain distance. The hand was then bound up, and the man was adjudged innocent or guilty according to its appearance at the end of three days. But these fiery ordeals were gross impositions on the credulity of the people, and the presiding priests used many deceptions to obtain the verdict they desired.

Guilds.—Among the Anglo-Saxons were guilds or clubs, which appear to have been associations of individuals, with rules mutually agreed upon. From these the companies and corporations of later date seem to have originated. The guild was a sort of friendly society; and the members generally manifested that inclination for festive enjoyments which is still at the present time characteristic of such associations. At that period, however, guilds were useful in promoting commerce and in checking the power of the nobility. Union was then necessary for mutual protection, as well as to supply the capital needed for enterprise.

Trades.—Trades among the Anglo-Saxons were pursued by the servants of a family, by travelling artisans, and by those who settled in certain places to carry on trade on their own account. Smiths, carpenters, and workers in leather were very common; but the artisans employed in more elegant works were comparatively few. The arts of working in gold, silver, iron, lead, and jewels were frequently practised by priests. Dunstan, who governed both church and state with absolute sway, was the best blacksmith, brazier, goldsmith, and engraver of his age; and many trinkets manufactured by him were preserved by the church as precious relics. It is said that King Edgar required that every priest should know how to practise some handicraft.

Spinning, weaving, embroidery, and dyeing were practised in domestic occupations, and the skill of the Anglo-Saxon ladies in

needlework and embroidery with gold was so remarkable, that their performances were called *Anglicum opus*, or English work.

Commerce.—The Anglo-Saxons paid great attention to foreign trade. We read that Irish merchants sold cloth at Cambridge and purchased slaves at Bristol, and that glass and whale-oil were articles of commerce. But commercial intercourse was limited, as appears from the laws, which made housekeepers responsible for their guests, whether traders, or merely wayfaring men; and every traveller at one time seems to have been an object of suspicion, for a regulation was made that whoever travelled through a wood or out of the common road should blow a horn, or else be deemed a thief. Smuggling was common; and foreign articles were often concealed under the pilgrim's garb.

There is a volume of Saxon Dialogues in the British Museum which gives an account of a Saxon merchant's occupation and way of life. In answer to a question the merchant says, "I am useful to the king, and to ealdermen, and to the rich, and to all people. I ascend my ship with my merchandise, and sail over the sea-like places, and sell my things; and buy dear things which are not produced in this land; and I bring them here to you with great danger over the sea. Sometimes I suffer shipwreck, with the loss of all my things, scarcely escaping myself." The merchant is then asked what he brings to England; on which he replies: "Skins, silks, costly gems, and gold; various garments, pigment, wine, oil, ivory, orichalcus (perhaps brass), copper and tin, silver, glass, and such like." The principle of commercial dealings is stated in answer to the next question. He is asked whether he would sell the things here as he bought them there; to which he replies: "I will not; because what would my labour benefit me? I will sell them here dearer than I bought them there, that I may get some profit to feed me, my wife, and my children."

Foreign commerce was greatly encouraged by some of the Saxon monarchs, especially Alfred, Athelstan, and Ethelred. The Anglo-Saxons had not much to export except wool: and probably the mines of the different metals yielded something for exportation; but it seems certain that horses were exported; and it is quite clear that slaves were in great abundance. The mission of Augustine to England was, as before stated, the result of the exposure of a group of Angles for sale as slaves in the slave-market at Rome.

Agriculture.—The great bulk of the Anglo-Saxon population was engaged in agricultural pursuits. A considerable portion of each estate was woodland, which furnished timber for building; and farms were divided into meadow, pasture, arable, and woodland; the boundaries of property being defined by a ditch, a brook, a hedge, a wooden mark, or some other prominent object. The

arable portion of an estate was generally situated nearest to the dwelling-house; it produced but a small quantity of corn, though sufficient for the wants of the population. Bread was made of barley as well as wheat. The Anglo-Saxons, however, were rather graziers than ploughmen; for almost three parts of the kingdom were set apart for cattle, and large flocks of sheep, as well as numerous herds of neat cattle and swine, were kept. There are many regulations concerning the pasturing of cattle in the Anglo-Saxon laws. In Wales, and probably also in England, the common lands were pastured by cattle belonging to several owners, under the direction of a neatherd and his assistants. Goats, geese, and fowls were likewise bred in great abundance. The nominal price of cattle was very low, but the value of money was greater at that period than it is at the present day.

Coinage.—The money of the Anglo-Saxons consisted of farthings, pence, shillings, and pounds. They had two sorts of pennies, five of the large being equal to a shilling. Both sorts of pennies were silver coins, and of these there are many varieties still in existence. Gold was a medium of exchange in an uncoined state; no Saxon gold coins are indeed known, but a foreign gold coin was current. The value of the several coins, or denominations of money, is uncertain; almost the only thing known concerning them is, that the pound was always understood to be a full pound of silver. This, however, was not the common troy pound, but another measure, known in Germany by the name of the Cologne pound, and which was three-quarters of an ounce less than the pound troy. Out of this amount of silver it was usual to coin two hundred and forty silver pennies.

Manners and Customs. — Of the manners and customs of the Anglo-Saxons there are many particulars on record. The respect paid to women and the influence which they enjoyed were very remarkable. Instead of being slaves, as they were in some countries, they exercised a permanent influence over men, and occupied the position of their associates and equals. It was rare that a woman took part in the labours of the field, even those of the lightest kind: men only were employed, and the shepherd who tended the flock also milked the ewes and made cheese. Their superior condition does not appear to have arisen from any peculiar refinement of manners among the Anglo-Saxon women; but rather from their diligent performance of their duties as mothers and housewives. Women were possessors of land, slaves, and other property, and they could make wills and bequeath possessions; all which must be considered as a tribute to the virtue and superior chastity of the Anglo-Saxon females.

Houses. — The habitations of the Saxons appear to have resem-

bled the old cottages and farmhouses still common in England. They were framed of timber, and the walls were covered with plaster or clay. In the houses of the rich the rude workmanship of the carpenter was concealed by hangings of needlework or painted cloth, often of a very expensive kind. The furniture was rudely constructed, but frequently consisted of rich materials and costly workmanship, and was sometimes ornamented with silver, gold, and ivory. A table is said to have been made in the reign of Edgar, by an artist named Athelwold, which was of the value of three hundred pounds. The tables were covered with table-cloths, and furnished with knives, spoons, drinking-horns and cups, bowls and dishes, but no forks. The vessels used at table were often very costly; but drinking-horns, some of which were richly carved and ornamented, were more common than cups of gold and silver. Glass vessels were rare in the early periods, but they became more common towards the Norman conquest. Illuminated manuscripts represent Anglo-Saxon bedsteads, and in some instances they have posts and curtains; but more generally they slept in a species of box or trough, filled with straw, and cloths or coverlets, which were sometimes made of skins of animals.

Dress. — The garments of the Anglo-Saxons, both men and women, were loose and flowing, and chiefly made of linen, adorned with broad borders of woven or embroidered colours. Woollen fabrics and skins of beasts were also used for clothing. The undermost part of the male attire consisted of a linen shirt; above which was worn a tunic of linen or woollen, according to the season, descending to the knee, and plain or ornamented round the collar, according to the rank of the wearer. This was generally confined by a girdle or belt around the waist. Linen drawers, stockings of linen or woollen were worn by the better orders, and shoes of some description were worn by all classes. The Saxon shoe is generally painted black, and drawn with an opening down the instep, which is secured by two thongs. They also wore a sort of buskin; and a half-stocking or sock was sometimes worn over the hose, which, however, were usually bandaged from the knee to the ankle with strips of cloth, linen, or leather. Coverings for the head are rarely seen, except upon the figures of warriors; the cap was their helmet, and its shape was generally conical. Silk was very little known; but it sometimes formed the mantle of sovereigns and princes; and furs were likewise used for the lining and ornamenting of garments. The female costume generally consisted of a long and ample garment with loose sleeves, worn over a closer-fitting one, which had high sleeves reaching to the waist. Their shoes were similar to those worn by the male sex, and they wore a head-dress formed of a veil, or long piece of linen or silk, wrapped round the head and

neck. The Anglo-Saxon ladies paid great attention to their hair; and in an Anglo-Saxon poem called Judith she is described as "the maid of the Creator with twisted locks." They appear also to have painted the cheek; and both men and women were adorned with ornaments of various kinds. Mention is made of a golden fly beautifully adorned with gems; of gold vermiculated necklaces, golden head-bands, earrings, a neck-cross, bracelets, brooches, belts of gold and silver, studded with jewels, and other ornaments of great value.

Food. — The food of the Anglo-Saxons consisted of both vegetable and animal substances; but chiefly the latter. Their modes of preparing it were by boiling, baking, and broiling; the former being the most common. Herbs of various kinds were used to season their food; but their principal vegetable ingredient was colewort. Both sexes assembled round the table, and their manners were what would now be considered rude and coarse. After a feast, bones and other remains were to be seen scattered on the floor. Both males and females indulged freely in the pleasures of eating; and the former were addicted to excessive drinking, which was the common vice of all ranks of the people: even the festivals of the church were disgraced by intemperance. Ale was the national drink; and there were several sorts of this liquor. Wine was used as a foreign luxury, but mead was the favourite beverage. Mention is made likewise of other choice liquors, such as pigment, which was a wine enriched with honey and spices; morat, made from honey, with the juice of mulberries; and cider, the produce of apples. The guests usually drank from the same cup; and, as disputes often arose as to the quantity which each person had taken, Edgar caused the drinking-cups to be marked, so that no one might take more than his share. The harp as well as the drinking-cup, was handed round at festive meetings, and each individual was expected to sing and play on the instrument in his turn.

Salutations. — The mode of salutation among the Anglo-Saxons appears to have been similar to that which several continental nations still observe; namely, that of kissing each other. When a stranger entered a house it was customary to bring him water to wash his hands and warm water for his feet. The use of warm baths was indeed very general; and they were held in such estimation, that the deprivation of them, as well as of a soft bed, was inflicted by the church as a penance. On the other hand, cold bathing was imposed as a mortification; and at the same time the penitent was ordered not to pay any attention to his personal ornament or comfort, nor allow the iron to touch his hair or his nails.

Children. — Among the Anglo-Saxons the desertion of children sometimes occurred. This practice was indeed common to their ancestors; but the influence of Christianity soon caused it to be considered as a crime, and a law was passed for its repression; and those who found and fostered a deserted child were paid a sum, which increased yearly and according to the appearance of the child. From the birth, until after the period of childhood, children were under the care of females, and women generally nursed their own children.

Travelling. — The common method of travelling among the Anglo-Saxons was on horseback; and though they had carriages, they were of rude construction, and not common. Their wheel-carriages, called chariots, were light two-wheeled cars, and there were also four-wheeled vehicles, carrying four or six persons in a kind of hammock. The trappings of their riding-horses were very splendid; and the nobles had numerous retainers.

Amusements. — In the Pagan times the amusements of the Saxons were brutal, and often bloody; but, as they advanced in civilisation, they adopted more innocent sports and pastimes. Hunting and hawking were the favourite recreations of the kings and nobles; and jugglers' tricks and postures requiring skill and dexterity were the delight of the whole population.

Literature, Language, Science, and the Fine Arts. — When the Saxons invaded England they were in a state of barbarism; and King Alfred states that, on his accession to the throne, all learning and knowledge were extinguished in the English nation; insomuch that none on the south of the Thames, and few south of the Humber understood the common prayers of the church, or were capable of translating a single sentence of Latin into English. By his exertions, however, a better state of things was brought about, and even in the dark ages preceding Alfred's reign there were some who prevented the total extinction of learning in our island. Among them was Gildas the historian, the only British author of the sixth century whose works are published. Gildas obtained the appellation of "the Wise," though his writings do not seem to entitle him to that distinction, and his history is only valuable for its antiquity. The immediate successor of Gildas, among our historians, is Nennius, said to have been one of the monks of Bangor; from the massacre of whom, in 613, he escaped; after which he wrote his History of the Britons. Contemporary with him was the Irish saint Columbanus, who was distinguished for his missionary labours among the Gauls and Germans. Of the Latin writers among the Anglo-Saxons the most ancient is Adhelm, Abbot of Malmesbury, and afterwards Bishop of Sherborn, who died in 709, and who wrote various works in prose and verse.

The Anglo-Saxon name, however, most distinguished in literature, is that of Beda, or Bede, upon whom the name of "Venerable" has been justly bestowed by posterity. Bede, who died in 735, wrote the Ecclesiastical History of England, and commentaries on most of the books of the Old and New Testament and the Apocrypha, besides two books of Homilies and a Martyrology. Contemporary with Bede were St. Boniface, the apostle of Germany, and Eddius, surnamed Stephanus, the author of the Latin Life of Bishop Wilfrid. Alcuin, Abbot of Canterbury, flourished as a philosopher, orator, and divine about seventy years after Bede: and composed many treatises on various subjects in an elegant and easy style. But the most learned man in Europe about the middle of the ninth century was Johannes Scotus Erigena, who was a native of Ayr in North Britain. He wrote many works, the chief of which is his work On the Division of Nature. The reign of Alfred is a memorable period in the annals of literature: inspired with the love of learning himself, he sought to encourage its growth among his people, and he founded a school (considered as the origin of the present University of Oxford), to the support of which he devoted no less than one-eighth of his whole revenue. After his death, however, the torch of science, which he had taken such pains to kindle, was almost extinguished, and, as it has been said, "The succeeding age, for its barbarism and wickedness, may be called the age of iron; for its dulness and stupidity, the age of lead; and, for its blindness and ignorance, the age of darkness."

The Anglo-Saxon language, the basis on which the present English language is founded, is one of the branches of the ancient Gothic. It has been divided by philologists into three dialects: the first, that in use from the arrival of the Saxons till the irruption of the Danes; the second, which prevailed from the Danish to the Norman invasion, called the Dano-Saxon; and the third, which was then in a state of transition to the English, called Normanno-Saxon, which extends to the time of Henry II. These were, however, rather successive stages of the language than different dialects, for no clear traces are to be met with of anything that can properly be called a variation of dialect. The oldest branch of Anglo-Saxon literature was poetry, of which there are several manuscripts and fragments extant. Its other productions were commentaries, homilies, injunctions to the clergy, lives of the saints, or biography, theology, moral philosophy, civil and ecclesiastical history, laws, charters, accompanied by what are termed land books, or exemplifications of the boundaries of land, medical botany, and Romance literature. In all these branches of composition there are still some works, or fragments of works, extant.

Poetry was much admired and cultivated among the Anglo-

Saxons; and the greatest princes were no less ambitious of the laurel than of the crown. Alfred himself was a good poet for his age, and employed his poetic talent to enlighten the minds and civilise the manners of his subjects. The poets of the north were especially celebrated, and much caressed by the Anglo-Saxon monarchs; and they seem to have entertained a very high idea of the power of their art. "I know a song," says one of them, "by which I soften and enchant the arms of my enemies, and render their weapons of none effect. I know a song which I need only to sing when men have loaded me with bonds, for the moment I sing it my chains fall in pieces, and I walk forth in liberty. I know a song useful to all mankind; for, as soon as hatred inflames the sons of men, the moment I sing it they are appeased. I know a song of such virtue, that, were I caught in a storm, I could hush the winds and render the air perfectly calm." To the cultivation of poetry the Anglo-Saxons added that of music, vocal and instrumental; and to be ignorant of this art was regarded by them as a disgrace. Besides the harp, they played the small pipe, the bagpipe, the flute, and the tabor; and a sort of organ seems also to have been used. Bede describes an organ as a kind of tower made of a number of pipes, from which, by the blowing of bellows, sounds issued, modulated by keys pressed by the player's fingers.

The art of painting was practised by the Anglo-Saxons chiefly for religious purposes. Most of the churches were adorned with portraits of saints, or with representations of events recorded in Scripture history. Some of the representations of this period are still in existence, and, though deficient in perspective and proportions, are sufficiently faithful to convey an idea of the objects intended. Sculpture was also cultivated; but, like painting, it was almost exclusively employed in ornamenting churches.

The useful art of architecture was carefully studied by the Anglo-Saxons; and before their conversion to Christianity they erected temples for their Pagan worship, but of their form or materials nothing is known with certainty. After their conversion they erected churches, which were in the first two centuries built with wood; but towards the end of the seventh century masonry was restored in England, as well as some other arts connected with it. Of all the buildings erected by the Anglo-Saxons, however, whether abbeys, churches, or houses, very little is left to inform us of their character or extent. It is only from the scanty notices of them in chronicles and records of the time that any judgment can be formed of them; and from these it would appear that some of their buildings were of considerable solidity and magnificence. Thus the abbey of Ramsay in Huntingdonshire, which was completed in 974, is described as having two towers raised above the

roof; one at the west end, and the other, which was larger, supported by four pillars, in the middle of the building, where it divided into four parts, being connected together by arches with other adjoining arches, which prevented them giving way. This is a clear description of a church with transepts and a tower at the intersection. It may safely be inferred that the architecture of the Anglo-Saxons closely resembled that of the Continent, as far as the Christian religion had spread a taste for Roman art; an inference confirmed by the analogy of later styles, even down to the fourteenth century.

CHAP. VII.

THE PERIOD FROM THE NORMAN CONQUEST TO THE DEATH OF KING JOHN.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.
1066. William I.	Malcolm III. (1057)	Philip I. (1060)	Henry IV. (1056).
1087. William Rufus	...	...	...
1093. ...	Donald VII.	....	...
1094. ...	Duncan II.	...	...
1095. ...	Donald VII. (restored)	...	...
1098. ...	Edgar	...	Henry V.
1100. Henry I.	David I.	Louis VI.	Lothaire II.
1135. Stephen	...	Louis VII.	...
...	Malcolm IV	...	Conrad III.
1154. Henry II.	William the Lion	Philip Augustus	Frederic Barbarossa.
1189. Richard I.	...	...	Henry VI.
1199. John	...	...	Philip.

WILLIAM I., SURNAMED THE CONQUEROR.

AFTER the battle of Hastings the Normans manifested feelings of triumph and joy, almost amounting to delirium. They are represented as making their horses prance and bound over the dead bodies of the Anglo-Saxons, and as feasting on the very field of

battle. William vowed that he would erect a splendid abbey on the spot; and in course of time this vow was accomplished. The exterior walls of this abbey embraced the whole of the hill where the bravest of the English fell; and all the surrounding country became the property of the holy house, which was called the Abbey of Battle. Monks, invited from the great convent of Marmontier, near Tours, took up their residence in the new edifice; and, endowed with the property of the English who had fallen in the battle, they prayed alike for the repose of the souls of those victims, and for the prosperity and long life of the Normans who had killed them.

After the battle of Hastings the Conqueror did not march straight to London, as was expected, but made a retrograde movement to Hastings, whither he hoped the population of those parts would resort to make voluntary submission. No one, however, asked for peace, and William, having received reinforcements from Normandy, resumed his march, keeping close to the sea-coast, and spreading devastation in his route. Romney he destroyed by fire, and massacred the inhabitants; Dover, with its strong castle, he captured, and remained there some days, until, encouraged by the submission of the people of Kent, he marched towards London. Assembled there were all the thanes and chiefs of the neighbouring counties, with their servants and followers; and William, fearing to attack them, after setting fire to Southwark, marched away with a determination of ravaging the country around it and destroying the property of the absent thanes. The people of Surrey, Sussex, Hampshire, and Berkshire were made to feel the miseries and degradation of the passage of a hostile army, and he then proceeded across Buckinghamshire into Hertfordshire, "slaying the people," till he came to Berkhampstead, where he took up a position in order to interrupt all communication with London from the north.

On the death of Harold the Saxon Witan had assembled in London, and had proclaimed Edgar Atheling, the imbecile son of Edmund Ironside, King of England. A few acts of legal authority were performed in his name, and the command of the army was given to Earls Edwin and Morcar. These two sons of Alfgar probably hoped to be able to maintain themselves in the north; but they showed little zeal in the command of a weak and as yet unorganised army; and after some time they returned from the north to London, where it was agreed that a deputation should be sent to Berkhampstead to offer William the crown. King Edgar himself, the Primate Stigand, the Earls Edwin and Morcar, with many prelates and chiefs, composed this deputation. They were received with an outward show of moderation and kindness, and

while Edgar made a verbal renunciation of the throne, the rest swore allegiance to the Conqueror; the bishops swearing for the clergy, the chiefs for the nobility, and the citizens for the good city of London. Then, having taken oaths of fidelity and peace, the Saxon deputies left hostages with the Conqueror, who on his part promised to be mild and merciful to all men.

William and his Normans now marched towards London, but did not enter it until a fortress had been erected for his reception. This fortress, which was built on the site, and probably included part of a Roman castle, grew gradually, in after times, into the Tower of London. As soon as this stronghold was finished, William, who had encamped at some distance from the city, took possession of it, and his coronation was appointed for a few days after.

It took place on Christmas-day, and was accompanied by accidents and circumstances highly irritating to the people. The new Abbey of Westminster was chosen as the scene of the ceremony, and the suburbs, the streets of London, and all the approaches to the abbey were lined with double rows of soldiers, horse and foot. Aldred, Archbishop of York, while placing the crown on his head, asked the English if they would have William the Norman for their king. A reply was given by acclamation in the affirmative; but the troops taking the confused noise for a cry of alarm raised by their friends, immediately attacked the crowd, and plundered and set fire to the neighbouring houses. The greater part of the assembly in the abbey hastened away, struck with consternation; but the Archbishop Aldred, and some terrified priests of both nations, remained and completed the ceremony. This conduct of the Norman soldiery, and the riot, which was with difficulty repressed, exasperated the people, and diminished their confidence in their new monarch. It was a bad augury for the peace of his kingdom.

William at his coronation took an oath to govern with equity, and to treat the English people as well as the best of their kings had done, and for a short time he respected this oath. He granted privileges to the city of London, forbade all violence on the part of his soldiers, regulated the administration of justice, and encouraged agriculture and commerce. At the same time he manifested his distrust of his new subjects by conferring all places of trust and power on the Normans, and erecting castles, in which he placed garrisons of Norman soldiers. These operations were distasteful to the English, who were further irritated by seeing proud foreign lords fixed among them and married to the widows and heiresses of the chiefs who had fallen in the battle of Hastings.

In the spring of 1067 William returned to Normandy, carrying with him many of the English nobility. His reason for taking this

step is uncertain. Some have supposed that he left England in the hope that the people would break out into insurrection, which would give him a pretext for further exerting the right of conquest. If this was his motive, he ably seconded it by leaving England under the rule of his half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and William Fitzosborne, one of his favourites. Both of these were men of arbitrary and severe character, and well calculated to vex and rouse the English. The rule of Odo soon pressed hardly upon them, but their complaints and cries for justice were despised; all classes of people were plundered, and the cup of misery and degradation was filled up by violence offered to the women. The English spirit, however, was not yet so depressed as to tolerate such wrongs as these. Partial insurrections took place in every quarter, and many a Norman, caught beyond the walls of his castle or garrison town, was cut to pieces. These partial insurrections were soon followed by extensively combined movements. A grand conspiracy was formed, and William's throne was made to totter before it was nine months old. At this time Eustace, Count of Boulogne, who had caused such a disturbance at Dover in the time of Edward the Confessor, was at enmity with William the Norman; and the people of Kent, forgetting their old grievances, sent a message to him, promising to put Dover into his hands, if he would make a descent on the coast and assist them against their Norman oppressors. Eustace accepted the invitation, and on landing near Dover was joined by a host of Kentish men; but on attacking the castle he was repulsed, fled to his ship, and returned home. In the west Edric the Forester took up arms, and forming an alliance with two Welsh princes, shut up the Normans within the walls of a garrison in the city of Hereford. At the same time the two sons of King Harold appeared in the west with a considerable force from Ireland; but they were defeated by the English themselves, who looked upon them as common enemies, and they returned to Ireland. Other insurrections took place in Shropshire, Nottinghamshire, and various parts of the kingdom; and it appeared to be the general desire to throw off the Conqueror's yoke. Letter after letter was sent into Normandy informing William of the state of the country; and at length, on the 6th of December, he embarked at Dieppe in haste, and set sail for England. On arriving in London, with a crafty prudence, he applied himself to calm the tempest, by promising the people that no one should for the future do them wrong; but his first act after making such a promise was to impose a tax, which was made more and more burdensome as his power increased.

Discontent spread far and wide, and war soon became inevitable. In the spring of 1068 the people of Devonshire, who were supported

by their hardy neighbours of Cornwall, refused to acknowledge his government, and prepared for resistance. William marched against them, and some of the thanes who commanded the insurgent forces proved traitors or cowards; but the men of Exeter were resolute in the defence of their city. For eighteen days they boldly defied his power; and when they did surrender it was because their chiefs had again betrayed them. After this conquest, William established his authority in Devonshire, Somersetshire, and Gloucestershire, and made himself master of Oxford and other fortified cities, which he had left in his rear when he advanced into the west. Wherever he imposed his dominion the mass of land was given to his lords and knights, and fortresses and castles were erected by Normans and other foreigners, who continued to cross the Channel in search of employment, wealth, and honours. The very meanest of these adventurers considered himself entitled to treat all classes of Englishmen with contempt, as slaves and barbarians.

In one of his conciliating moods William had promised Edwin, Earl of Mercia, one of his daughters, in marriage; and flattered by the prospect of such a prize, this powerful nobleman had rendered important services to the Norman cause. When Edwin, however, asked his reward, William not only refused the fair bride, but insulted the suitor. Thus disappointed, Edwin with his brother Morcar fled to the north, there to join their incensed countrymen, and to make a grand effort for the recovery of their ancient liberties. No foreign soldier had as yet passed the Humber; and with thousands of hardy warriors, who swore they would not sleep under the roof of a house till the day of victory, Edwin and Morcar fixed the great camp of independence on the banks of that river. They were joined by some allies from the mountains of Wales; but the Conqueror came upon them before they were prepared, and after a fierce battle they were defeated. A great number of the English perished; the rest fled to York, pursued by the Normans; and being expelled from thence, they turned to the north, and landed in the country of the Scotch, or in the territory near their borders. In this expedition William took Warwick, Leicester, Derby, Nottingham, Lincoln, and York; in the latter of which places he built a strong citadel, which became the advanced post and bulwark of the Normans towards the north.

The people of the country, however, were still hostile to the Normans, who, fearing to be besieged in their turn, collected all the provisions they could, and stored them up in the citadel. At this crisis Aldred, the Archbishop of York, who had crowned and favoured William, came to his cathedral to celebrate a religious festival, and soon after his arrival he sent to his lands, situated

near the city, for provisions; but as his messengers entered the gate they were seized by the Norman governor of York, who had them carried to his magazines in the castle. On hearing this, Aldred immediately resorted to the camp of the Conqueror in the south, before whom he presented himself in his pontifical robes, holding his pastoral staff in his hands. William rose to offer him the kiss of peace; but Aldred stood at a distance, and exclaimed: "Listen to me, King William! Thou wast a foreigner; and notwithstanding that, God, wishing to punish our nation, thou obtainest, at the price of much blood, this kingdom of England. I consecrated, blessed, and crowned thee with mine own hand, but now I curse thee — thee and thy race — because thou hast made thyself the persecutor of God's Church, and the oppressor of its ministers." The Norman nobles who were present drew their swords, and would have slain the bishop, but they were prevented by their master; and he was allowed to return to York, where he shortly after died.

But although William triumphed in the north, his throne was still threatened, and the country was agitated from one end to the other. The English nobles who had hitherto adhered to his cause fell from him in great numbers, and took refuge with Malcolm, King of Scotland; and these emigrants, with others who arrived at a later period, were the ancestors of a principal part of the Scottish nobility. It is probable that William did not regret the loss of these English thanes, but he was soon vexed by the departure of some of the Norman chiefs and many of the soldiers of fortune that had followed him from the Continent. These warriors were wearied by the constant attacks of the English, who carried on a species of guerrilla warfare against them; and seeing no term to the strife they recrossed the Channel to Normandy. William punished this desertion by confiscation of of their possessions in the island; at the same time he invited fresh adventurers from nearly every country in Europe; and, allured by his brilliant offers, bands flocked to him from the banks of the Rhine, the Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, and the Tagus, from the Alps, and the Italian peninsula beyond the Alps.

In the year 1069 the strong garrison which the Conqueror had left at York was in such danger from the natives around the city, that he was obliged to march thither again for its defence. He subdued the revolt; but he had no sooner done so than he found himself threatened in other quarters. The sons of Harold were approaching the south with an Irish fleet; while the Danes landed on the eastern coast, and penetrated as far as York. On the advance of William the Danes retired to the Humber, where they were induced to re-embark by the payment of a sum of money.

About the same time Robert de Comines undertook an expedition to Durham, where he committed many excesses; but the English took a terrible revenge on him and his followers. As they lay buried in sleep they were suddenly attacked, and of all those engaged in the expedition only two escaped. Robert de Comines himself perished.

Two years passed away without any important struggle, and William employed himself during that period in erecting castles in various parts of the kingdom. But the English, though quiet, were not subdued. They had been negotiating with Sweyn Estridsen, King of Denmark; and that powerful monarch now dispatched a fleet, consisting of 240 sail, to their aid. The army embarked in this fleet was composed of Danes, Holsteiners, Frisians, Saxons, Poles, and adventurers from other countries, and was under the command of the king's brother Osbeorn. The Danes sailed up the Humber, as their ancestors had done; and on landing they were joined by the emigrants from Scotland, and by the people from all parts of the country. Operations were commenced by the capture of York, the Norman garrison of which was slain almost to a man, and the greater part of the city, with the minster, or cathedral, was destroyed by fire. Such parts of the city as escaped the conflagration were occupied by Edgar Atheling, who had arrived from Scotland, and who assumed the royal title and exercised the rights of sovereignty. A rapid advance to the south might perhaps have insured the confederates signal success; but Malcolm, King of Scotland, who had promised to aid them, did not appear, and at the approach of winter the Danes retired to their ships in the Humber, or took up quarters between the Ouse and the Trent.

When William first heard the news of the capture of York he was hunting in the Forest of Dean. He swore that he would utterly exterminate the Northumbrian people; and he performed his deadly vow. He took the field with a large army in the spring; and although insurrections arose in his rear, he advanced steadily towards the north. By this time the Danes had abandoned the northern Saxons, and were sailing away to the south; but, though left to themselves, they made an obstinate resistance; nor was York recaptured until many hundreds of English and Normans lay dead together. Edgar Atheling again fled to Scotland; and William, elated by his victory, continued his march northward. All the country between York and Durham was laid waste, and left without a human habitation. The inhabitants were either driven away or massacred, and more than 100,000 perished. A havoc more complete and diabolical was never committed by human agency; and its horrors were succeeded by pestilence and

famine. To complete this dreadful picture, some of the English, to escape death by starvation, sold themselves, with their wives and children, to the Norman soldiery, who were well provided with food from the Continent; food that was purchased with the gold and goods they had stolen from the English.

Confiscation now became general, and William avowed his determination to despoil and degrade the natives of the country. All property in land began to pass into the hands of the Normans and other foreigners; and they were even enriched by the spoils of the Church. Much plate and many costly jewels had been deposited in the monasteries, in the hope that these sanctuaries would be respected by men professing to be Christians; but these, together with the church ornaments, and the vessels of silver and gold attached to the service of the altar, were carried away by the spoilers. The Normans also removed or destroyed all deeds and documents, charters of immunities, and evidences of property; and their spoils were immense. Whole counties were granted to some chiefs, while numerous manors and villages fell into the hands of others.

The insurrections which broke out in William's rear during his march to York were partially suppressed by his lieutenants; but the whole of the north-west was still insecure, and the Conqueror was compelled to march thither in person. Chester, which had not yet been touched by the Normans, was captured, and a strong castle was erected there, while detachments of them reduced the surrounding country. To retain the newly-conquered province in the north-west William left a strong body of troops behind him under the command of a Fleming named Gherbaud, who became the first Earl of Chester. Subsequently he was succeeded by Hugh d'Avranches, — for his fierceness of character surnamed the Wolf, — who repeated the fearful tragedy of Northumbria in the districts around Chester; and the conquered territory was divided among the Normans as it had been in the north.

On the eastern coast there were still disturbances demanding attention. In that part Hereward, "England's darling," a Saxon leader, made a successful resistance. His power extended along the eastern sea-line, over the fine country of Lincolnshire, Huntingdon, and Cambridge, and English refugees of all classes repaired to his camp for refuge. The jealous fears of the king increased his danger. Edwin and Morcar remained quiet, but he dreaded them on account of their popularity, and resolved to seize their persons. The two earls having received timely notice of his intention, Morcar effected his escape to Hereward; but Edwin, who fled towards the Scottish border, was betrayed by his attendants, and slain by the Normans. At length William moved forward against Hereward

with a formidable army. The gallant chief was in a fortified station in the Isle of Ely, and William proceeded against him by blockade, and stationed his army so as to block up every road that led into the fens by land, while his fleet, in the Wash, watched every inlet from the sea. In order to approach the fortified camp William commenced a wooden causeway, two miles long, with bridges over the beds of the rivers; but these operations were so frequently interrupted, and in a manner so murderous, sudden, and mysterious, that the Normans conceived Hereward to be in league with some demoniacal power. A sorceress was employed, in order to neutralise or defeat the spells of the English; and she was placed with much ceremony on the top of a tower, at the head of the works; but Hereward, watching his opportunity, set fire to the dry reeds and rushes, and the tower, with the sorceress, workmen, and soldiers, was consumed. But at length famine favoured William. The monks of Ely, though their profession and vowed duties included fasting, became impatient under privation; and by their guidance the Normans found their way across the fens into the Isle of Ely. A thousand English were slain, and the rest laid down their arms; but Hereward fled to the swampy lands in Lincolnshire, and William was, after all, glad to purchase his submission by restoring his estates. The exploits of this last hero of Anglo-Saxon independence formed a favourite theme of tradition and poetry; and long after his death the people of Ely delighted in showing the ruins of a wooden tower which they called the Castle of Hereward.

The ambition of William was not confined to England. In the year 1072 he marched against Malcolm, King of Scotland, whom he compelled to acknowledge his authority, though Malcolm refused to deliver the Saxon refugees into the Conqueror's power.

England might now be considered as conquered. The people had fought bravely against him, but William was finally victorious. Not long after his return from Scotland, however, circumstances demanded his presence in his continental dominions. There were insurrections in the country of Maine; and, collecting a body of English forces, William proceeded thither, and committed as much mischief as he had perpetrated in his wars in England. While he was on the Continent Edgar Atheling, assisted by Philip, King of France, again set sail to invade England; but he had scarcely gained the sea when a storm arose, and drove his ships on the coast of Northumberland. Some of his followers were drowned, and others taken prisoners by the Normans; but he and a few friends were enabled to return to Scotland. After this misfortune, on the advice of Malcolm, he sought and obtained a reconciliation with William: an apartment in the palace of Rouen was allotted him,

with a pound of silver a day for his maintenance; and there the descendant of the great Alfred passed the latter part of his life, occupying himself with dogs and horses.

The condition of a usurper is always uncertain and unsafe. William had been called into Normandy to repress one insurrection, and he was recalled to England by another of a much more threatening nature. This new revolt in England was of a different description from any that had before taken place, as it was not planned by the English, but by Norman barons. At this time the earldom of Hereford was held by a young nobleman named Roger Fitz-Osborn, who was negotiating a marriage for his sister with Ralph de Gaël, a Briton by birth; but for some reason the king prohibited this marriage. All parties were enraged at this prohibition, and resolved not to regard it. The wedding took place, and at the feast, when all were heated with wine, Hereford complained of the king's conduct with regard to the marriage; asserting that it was an insult offered to the memory of his father, to whom the bastard owed his crown. By degrees the lips of other barons also were opened in invective against William, and they finally agreed to conspire against his throne. One great object with them was to gain over Earl Waltheof, who was present, and whose warlike qualities, and great popularity with the English, were well known. He had been rewarded for his fidelity to the Conqueror with the hand of Judith, the king's niece; but, notwithstanding this, he either promised to aid them, or took an oath of secrecy. But the conspiracy was disclosed by him to his wife, and this proved the cause of his own ruin. Roger Fitz-Osborn and Ralph de Gaël were hurried into action before the scheme was ripe; the former was taken prisoner, and the latter obliged to leave the country; and scarcely one of the guests at the marriage escaped with life. Waltheof himself, although he had taken no active part in the conspiracy, was first confined in the citadel of Winchester, and then executed. His great possessions proved his ruin, rather than his treason; for there were many Norman barons who had cast the eyes of affection on his honours and estates.

Victorious as he was, however, William's crown was still surrounded with thorns; for, from the year 1077 to 1079, he was wounded by the sharp tooth of filial disobedience. When he received the submission of the province of Maine he promised the inhabitants to make his eldest son Robert their prince; and before departing for the conquest of England he stipulated that, in case of success, he would resign the duchy of Normandy to the same son. When he was once firmly seated in his conquest, however, he showed his determination of keeping and ruling both his insular kingdom and his continental duchy; and when Robert claimed

what was his right, he was informed by his father that he was wont to throw off his clothes only when he went to bed. Robert was brave, ambitious, and impatient of command; and being surrounded by men ambitious as himself, he was soon led to rebel against his father. The immediate cause of his revolt was a quarrel with his brothers, occasioned by their throwing water upon his head in sport from a balcony. Irritated by this act, Robert drew his sword and ran up stairs, vowing that he would wipe out the insult with blood. A tumult followed, which the king had much difficulty in quelling; and that very night Robert and his companions fled to Rouen, fully determined to raise the standard of revolt. His character, however, was unsteady and impetuous, and his efforts were unsuccessful; till at last, in the year 1079, he obtained aid from the French king, who wished to weaken the power of William by divisions among his subjects. He established himself in the castle of Gerberoy, on the confines of Normandy; and, burning with rage, the king crossed the Channel with a formidable English army, and laid siege to it. But he lost many men in fruitless operations, and from sorties made by the garrison, and was obliged to relinquish the siege in despair. It is said that one day, during a vigorous sally, Robert, observing a knight in close armour, encountered and brought him to the ground; but in the voice of the fallen warrior he recognised his father, and generously staying his hand, he dismounted, assisted him to rise, and seated him on his own horse. Subsequently a reconciliation was effected, and Robert returned with his father to England; but his disorderly conduct soon renewed the quarrel, and he again left the court. He never saw his father's face again; and his departure was followed by a paternal malediction, which was never revoked.

In the reign of William the Conqueror bishops were often soldiers as well as priests. Several instances are on record of their wielding the lance as well as the crosier; but the most remarkable is that of Odo, the king's brother, who was Bishop of Bayeux in Normandy, and Earl of Kent in England. The Bishop of Durham, who was as skilful in repressing rebellion by the sword as in reforming the morals of the English by eloquent discourse, had been recently slain in a tumult at Gateshead by the people of Durham, and Odo was entrusted with the duty of avenging his death. He found no force to resist him; but he treated the whole province as insurgent nevertheless, and, without employing judicial forms, beheaded or mutilated all the men he could find in their houses. By this exterminating expedition Odo obtained the reputation of being one of the greatest dominators of the English. But this title was not sufficient for him: profane crowns indeed were out of his reach; but he aspired to a sacred one — the tiara. To this end

he opened a correspondence with the Eternal City by means of English and Norman pilgrims; bought a palace at Rome, and sent rich presents to the senators. His hopes were inflamed by Italian astrologers, who predicted that he would be the successor of Gregory VII., the reigning Pope; and he was encouraged by the fact, that Robert Guiscard, one of twelve heroic Norman brothers, ruled over all the country now included within the kingdom of Naples. A great number of Norman chiefs also entered into his views, and a secret expedition was formed for the conquest of Italy. William was in Normandy when he heard of this design, and being determined to stop it, set sail for England. He surprised the aspirant at the Isle of Wight, seized all his treasures, and summoned him before a council of Norman barons. At this council he ordered Odo to be taken into custody, but no one moved. William then sprang forward and seized him; and when Odo exclaimed against this violence to a bishop, he replied, that he was arrested as Earl of Kent and as a vassal whose duty it was to give an account of his government. Odo was carried forthwith to Normandy, where he was shut up in the dungeon of a castle.

About this time England was again threatened by an invasion of the Danes under Canute, the illegitimate son of Sueno, who had recently died. A fleet of about 1000 sail was prepared for the expedition; but it was delayed by bad weather, contrary winds, and inauspicious omens, and the design was eventually abandoned. The known intention of Canute, however, kept William in a state of anxiety for nearly two years, and he revived the odious Danegelt, by which he drained the country of its treasures, for the purpose of raising an army to meet the coming danger. To complete the miseries inflicted upon England at this time, William ordered all the land lying near the sea-coast to be laid waste, that the Danes might not find food or forage.

No single act of the Conqueror, however, inflicted more misery within the limits of its operations than his seizure and wasting of the lands in Hampshire to make himself a hunting-ground. He depopulated that country to the extent of thirty miles, and having turned out the inhabitants, destroyed all the villages, plantations, houses, and even churches which stood within the district, he reserved it for the habitation of wild beasts, and distinguished it by the name of the New Forest. At the same time he enacted new and severe laws, by which he prohibited hunting in any of his forests: the killing of a man might at this time be atoned for by payment of a moderate fine, but whoever killed a stag or a deer was to have his eyes torn out. The Saxon Chronicle says, that "this savage king loved wild beasts as if he had been their father."

Towards the close of the year 1086 William met all the chiefs

of the kingdom, both lay and churchmen, at Salisbury; and they again took the oath of allegiance to him. This was preparatory to his passing over to the Continent, taking with him a "mighty mass of money, for some great attempt." The enterprise contemplated was a war with France for the possession of Mantes, and the territory situated between the Epte and the Oise. At first William entered into negotiations for this territory; but Philip, the French king, after amusing him with quibbles, suddenly marched troops into the country, and ordered some of his barons to make incursions on the frontiers. During the negotiations William fell sick and kept his bed. His hatred of the French king was intense, and he was driven to frenzy on hearing that Philip, in allusion to his corpulency, had remarked, that there would be a fine churching when he was delivered. In reply to this coarse jest, William swore, by the most terrible of oaths, that he would be churched in Notre Dame, the cathedral of Paris, and that he would present so many wax-torches, that all France should be set in a blaze. About the end of July, 1087, he proceeded to the performance of his vow: Mantes was captured and destroyed by his forces; but, as the Conqueror rode to view the ruin they had made, his horse put his fore feet on some hot embers, which caused him to plunge so violently that the rider was thrown on the high pommel of his saddle, and seriously bruised. He was carried in a litter to Rouen, where, after lingering in great pain till the 9th of September, he died.

The death of William was the signal for a general flight and scramble. All by whom he had been surrounded mounted their horses and returned to their several homes, to look after their own property and interests, and for three hours the corpse of the mighty Conqueror lay unheeded on the bare boards. The citizens of Rouen were in great alarm: they fled from their houses, and concealed their property, fearing a general pillage. At length the clergy and the monks bethought themselves of the interment of their sovereign, and forming a procession, they went with the crucifix, burning tapers and incense, to pray over the dishonoured corpse for the peace of its soul. It was ordained by the Archbishop of Rouen that the body should be interred at Caen; but even now there were none to do it honour. The mighty monarch's son and all his friends had fled; and an obscure country knight was the only man who could be found to undertake the charge of burying him. The body was conveyed by the Seine and the sea to Caen, where it was buried in a church which William had founded. But even the last burial service did not pass undisturbed. The ceremony had scarcely commenced when Asseline Fitz-Arthur exclaimed, that the man whom they were praising was a robber, who

had deprived him of the ground on which they stood, and, with a solemn appeal to God, he forbade the interment of the corpse in his glebe. The priests and people were astonished; but the statement of Fitz-Arthur was found to be correct, and the bishops present were obliged to pay him sixty shillings for the grave, and to engage to procure for him the full value of his land. Then at last was the body of this mighty monarch lowered without a coffin into the tomb, and the assembly dispersed.

During his reign William established the feudal system in England, and also caused a minute account of all the landed property in the country to be taken and recorded in what is called the Domesday Book. His laws with respect to the English constitution proved upon the whole beneficial. But William was rather a warrior than a legislator: no prince of the time equalled him as a general; and he surpassed them all in the difficult art of ruling a turbulent nobility, though their obedience arose from fear rather than love. William's temper was of the most fiery description, and to offend him was to ensure either death or disgrace. How little he was loved is shown by the scene after his death, when, though a few days before he could command the obedience of 100,000 knights, not one could be induced to do honour to his remains. With all his power he could command no man's affections; among all his possessions he had not apparently the love of a single human heart.

WILLIAM II., surnamed Rufus

William the Conqueror, lying on his death-bed, summoned around him his chief prelates and barons, and declared in their presence that he bequeathed the duchy of Normandy, with Maine and its other dependencies, to his eldest son Robert. "As for the crown of England," added the dying man, "I bequeath it to no one, for I did not receive it like the duchy of Normandy by inheritance, but gained it by conquest and the shedding of blood. The succession of that kingdom I leave to the decision of God, only desiring most fervently that my son William, who has ever been dutiful to me in all things, may obtain it and prosper in it."

The son William did not stay to meditate on the moral lessons that his mighty father's death-bed might have afforded, but set off instantly to look after his crown. Just as he was on the point of embarking for England the intelligence of his father's decease reached him; but he neither halted nor looked back, desiring nothing but to clutch the crown he had in view. On his arrival in England Lanfranc the primate espoused his cause, and though among some of the nobles there was a strong feeling against his election, no

actual opposition was made to it, and he was crowned at Westminster by Lanfranc on Sunday the 29th of September, A.D. 1087, the seventeenth day after his father's death.

When news of this event reached Robert, the Conqueror's eldest son, he was living as an exile at Abbeville, or some say in Germany; but he hastened to make his appearance in Normandy, where he was joyfully received and acknowledged as duke by the prelates, barons, and other chief men. Robert, however, was not content with Normandy, he desired to have England too; and his great barons, who had possessions in both countries, encouraged his ambition. Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, was especially eager in the matter, and a war between the brothers soon became inevitable.

William, called Rufus, or the Red, from the colour of his hair, celebrated the Easter of 1088 with his court at Winchester. Thither he had invited all the great lords, and Odo therefore considered this as a favourable opportunity to arrange his plans for his dethronement. When the festival was concluded the chiefs and nobles departed to their several governments, east, west, and north, and shortly afterwards a dangerous insurrection broke out simultaneously in many parts of England.

The insurgents, however, lost time, and injured their cause by various acts of depredation; and an army with which Robert had promised to support Odo's operations was slow in making its appearance. Rufus in the meantime was not idle. Hearing of the preparations in Normandy for the invasion of England, he gave permission to his subjects to fit out vessels as privateers; and these did him great service, as the Normans, knowing there was no royal navy to oppose them, crossed the Channel in small parties; and so many of them were taken by the English cruisers, that the attempt at invasion was abandoned. Another measure was adopted by Rufus in this crisis, which doubtless also contributed to this result. Finding that the Normans were generally arrayed against him, he threw himself on the loyalty of his English subjects, and when he proclaimed his ban of war in the old Saxon fashion, "Let every man who is not a man of nothing, whether he live in burgh or out of burgh, leave his house and come," 30,000 stout Englishmen came to the place appointed for the muster, and ranged themselves under his banner.

The most dangerous enemy of Rufus was Odo, who was both Bishop of Bayeux and Earl of Kent. He was now in Rochester Castle, surrounded by barons and soldiers, and with the place strongly fortified. After a siege of seven weeks, however, he was obliged to surrender it, but only on condition of being allowed freely to leave the kingdom. Having thus disposed of his uncle, Rufus found no difficulty with the other conspirators. Some he

detached from the confederacy by peaceful negotiations, others he won over by blandishments. The Bishop of Durham was defeated by a division of the royal army, and the rest either submitted on proclamation, or escaped into Normandy. A few were pardoned by Rufus, but the greater part were attainted, and their estates bestowed on the king's adherents.

Robert, the Duke of Normandy, was brave and good-natured, but indolent, careless, extravagant in his expenses, and so easily ruled by others as to lose entirely the respect of his subjects. By the year 1090 his dominions had fallen into complete anarchy, and the friends of William resolved to drive him out of Normandy. By means of bribery, or through the treachery of the Norman garrison, several fortresses were taken, and Rouen itself was soon in danger.

In these difficulties Robert solicited the assistance of his brother Henry, to whom his father had bequeathed 5000 pounds of silver, but no territory. Henry joined him at Rouen, and his exertions contributed to put down the conspiracy within the city, as well as to repulse the troops by which it was threatened; but in the following year Rufus himself appeared in Normandy at the head of an English army, and Robert called in the French king, by whose mediation a treaty of peace was concluded at Caen. Rufus was a great gainer by this treaty; for he kept possession of all the fortresses he had acquired in Normandy, together with the territories of Eu, Aumale and other places; and obtained besides the renunciation, on the part of Robert, of all claims to the English throne. Robert and William had no sooner made up their quarrel than they turned their arms against their brother Henry, whose known abilities and decision of character had excited their jealousy. Henry was obliged to retire to St. Michael's Mount; and even there he was besieged by his brothers: but during the siege, as Rufus was one day riding near the fortress, he was attacked by two of Henry's soldiers and dismounted. One of them had even raised his hand to kill him; but on his exclaiming that he was the King of England he desisted, and helped him to rise and remount his horse. Robert on his side is said to have expressed much regret at the sufferings of the besieged, to have permitted them to fetch water, and to have sent his brother wine. In the end Henry capitulated, and obtained permission to retire into Brittany. He had lost all he had, and he wandered from place to place for two years; but he seems to have retained nevertheless a high reputation for ability, and he was invited by the people of Damfront to govern their city.

In 1099 Lanfranc, the Primate of England, died; and the see of Canterbury was kept vacant till 1093, when Anselm, one of the first men of the day in point of learning (though not remarkable for prudence), was appointed archbishop. Soon after his appoint-

ment he demanded the restoration not only of the lands possessed by Lanfranc but also of others which had formerly belonged to the see; but which had now for many years been the property of others.

His demand was not complied with; and the dispute thus commenced between the king and the archbishop continued throughout the reign. In the midst of it Anselm set out for Rome; and then the revenues of the see were seized by the monarch, and they were never restored during his life.

On the return of Rufus from Normandy he had been accompanied by his brother Robert, whom he had engaged to indemnify for the territory he had resigned in Normandy by an equivalent of land in England. But though Robert, during his stay in England, repeatedly claimed the promised indemnity, he never obtained it; and at last went back to Normandy without having his claims satisfied.

Messenger after messenger was dispatched to William from the Continent, but with no effect; till at length, in 1094, Robert sent two heralds, who, having made their way into the presence of Rufus, denounced him before his nobles as a false and perjured knight, with whom his brother would no longer hold friendship.

On this the King of England followed the two heralds to Normandy to defend his honour, and the dispute was submitted to twenty-four barons, who decided against him. Still William would not submit; he appealed to the sword, and Robert applied for assistance to the King of France, who once more marched an army into Normandy. Philip, however, was bought off by English gold; and it is probable that Rufus would then have conquered Normandy, had he not been recalled to England by important events.

The Scotch king, Malcolm Caenmore, had invaded England during the first Norman war, and William on his return had made war upon him and reduced him to submission. At this time the Welsh, taking advantage of the variance between the two brothers, had entered the country, taken great booty of cattle, and destroyed many people. Before Rufus could reach the scene of action they had overrun several counties and reduced the Isle of Anglesea; and when Rufus pursued them into their own country he was compelled to retreat with great loss. In the summer of 1095 he again entered the mountains with a numerous army, but was again driven back with loss; so that at last he turned from Wales in despair; but about the same time he quelled a conspiracy in the north of England, headed by Robert Mowbray, Earl of Northumberland, and the country was restored to peace.

It was during the reign of Rufus that the great wars waged for

ages by the Christian nations for the conquest of Palestine began. These Crusades, as they were called, were zealously encouraged by the Romish clergy; and kings and princes, as well as their subjects of all ranks, responded enthusiastically to their exhortations, and proceeded in large masses to the East, to recover the Holy Sepulchre from the power of the infidel Saracens.

Among the most eager of those who engaged in these enterprises was Robert of Normandy; but being as usual in want of money, he mortgaged his dukedom to his brother William as security for the repayment of 10,000 marks which he had borrowed to defray the expenses of the expedition; and then, with the most splendid hopes for the future, he departed for Palestine; while William sailed across the Channel, and at once took possession of Normandy and its dependencies. By the Normans he was received without opposition, but the people of Maine burst out into universal insurrection. He defeated them nevertheless; but, being wounded while laying siege to a small castle, returned suddenly to England.

He appears to have recovered speedily from his wound, but his life was drawing to a close. On the 1st of August (A.D. 1100) he went with many lords and gentlemen to hunt in the New Forest; a spot where, as it was afterwards remembered, the blood of William the Conqueror had already more than once been shed. Not long before, an illegitimate son of Duke Robert had been accidentally killed there. Towards evening a hart came bounding by, near the spot where the king was standing. He shot at it, but without effect, as his bowstring broke. Being unprovided with a second, and fearing to lose the prey, he called to Sir Walter Tyrrel, who was concealed in the thicket, to shoot. Tyrrel drew his bow; but the fork-head arrow, glancing aside, as was supposed, pierced the heart of the king; who fell, and with one groan expired.

Tyrrel, on discovering the catastrophe, instantly mounting his horse, galloped to the sea-coast, and embarked for Normandy; and late in the evening the body of the king was discovered by a poor charcoal burner, who put it into his cart and carried it to Winchester, where it was buried.

This is the generally received account of the death of Rufus; but all that is really certain is that he was killed by an arrow in the New Forest. As to the precise circumstances attending his death considerable doubt has been entertained. Some have supposed that ambition prompted his brother Henry to murder him, and the accidents of a hunt might afford a convenient opportunity for such a deed; others that the fatal shaft was shot by some desperate Englishman, who had heavy wrongs to avenge. Another

very probable explanation is that the party was intoxicated, since the hunt had been preceded by a grand feast, and that in the confusion consequent on drunkenness the king was struck by a random arrow. He was only forty years of age, and in full health and vigour, when he was thus suddenly cut off.

HENRY I., SURNAMED BEAUCLERC.

At the very first report of his brother's death Henry hurried to Winchester Castle, and imperiously demanded the keys of the royal treasury. These, however, William de Breteuil the treasurer refused to deliver up, asserting the right of the absent Robert, not only to the treasure, but to the crown of England. But Henry was not to be thwarted in his design. Drawing his sword, and threatening instant death to all who should oppose him, being seconded also by some powerful barons, he seized the money and crown jewels before the eyes of the treasurer; then, having secured the contents of the coffers, he hastened to London, where he obtained the concurrence of the nobles, and in the course of three days from the death of Rufus was crowned at Westminster Abbey. In his own words, he was "crowned by the mercy of God, and by the common consent of the barons of the kingdom."

Henry commenced his reign by issuing a charter of liberties, which gained him great popularity. He also solemnly engaged to correct several abuses and never to meddle with the revenues of the church or church preferments; and he strengthened his cause by a marriage with Matilda, the niece of Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes. She had hitherto resided in a convent, but had not taken the vows, and the marriage was ultimately allowed, though not without many scruples and much discussion on the part of the clergy, as it appeared she had sometimes worn a veil like that of a nun, though she herself declared it had only been put on her by her aunt the abbess to save her from the insults of the licentious Normans. When she became queen she was much beloved by the nation for her piety and benevolence, as well as for her Saxon descent.

On ascending the throne Henry had caused a report to be circulated that his brother Robert had been crowned King of Jerusalem and would never return to England; but this report, as he well knew, was wholly without foundation. Robert was actually at that moment in Europe, and on his way back to Normandy. He had distinguished himself much in the conquest of Palestine and at the taking of Jerusalem, and on his return was everywhere received with great honour.

In these honours he was rejoicing when news came to him of the usurpation of his brother, whereupon he immediately proclaimed

against him the ban of war, and was supported in his design by his Norman barons and vassals, eager to fight under the banners of a prince who had won so much renown in the Holy Land.

Henry on his side was prepared to meet the invasion, for all classes of people in England, dreading the ferocious tyranny of the Normans, rallied round his standard. Robert landed at Portsmouth, and the two armies met near Winchester; but, to the surprise of most men, there followed, instead of a battle, a seeming reconciliation and a hurried peace. For the yearly payment, or promise of payment, of 3000 marks, and the cession of the castles that Henry had held in Normandy, Robert consented to renounce all claim to the crown of England, and to go quietly back to the Continent. Henry promised to pardon his brother's English partisans; but scarcely had Robert landed in Normandy than he began to take measures against them, and outlawed several of the barons.

Robert, following the impulse of his generous nature, returned to England to plead their cause, and Henry received him with smiles and brotherly embraces; but he seized on him as a prisoner nevertheless, and Robert was glad to purchase his liberty again at the price of his annuity of 3000 marks. He got back to Normandy, and then in mere self-defence, renewed his friendship with the barons exiled from England; whereupon Henry declared that the peace between them was at an end.

The truth was that Henry had resolved to unite the duchy of Normandy to his own kingdom; and his design was much favoured by the disorder that prevailed in the dominions of Robert, who, though brave and generous, was incapable of controlling a factious and intriguing nobility, or of governing a state, as states were then constituted.

On this pretext Henry called on his brother to resign his duchy to him, offering as an equivalent a sum of ready money or an annual pension; and on Robert's declining to accede to this proposal, he crossed the Channel with a large army, to obtain his object by force.

In his first campaign Henry was unsuccessful; but in the following year (1106) he defeated Robert at Tenchbray, and took him prisoner, along with many of the barons who had fought on his side. He afterwards not only shut up his brother in Cardiff Castle, but perpetrated the ferocious cruelty of having him blinded by a horrible method often practised in that age, of placing red-hot metal basins over the eyeballs.

In this miserable condition the unfortunate Robert remained for twenty-eight years, until, at the age of eighty, his dreary captivity was terminated by death.

At the same time that he seized on Robert, Henry had made

himself master of Normandy. He also got possession of Robert's son, a boy five years of age, whose existence had been to him a great source of disquietude.

It was observed that he struggled with himself against some evil design concerning this poor boy. In the first instance he had committed him to the care of an honourable man, a Norman baron named Helie de St. Saen, who had married an illegitimate daughter of Duke Robert; but his distrustful temper afterwards led him to attempt regaining the possession of the boy's person. This faithful guardian, however, conveyed the child to a place of safety, and even induced the King of France and others to espouse his cause. In the year 1113 Henry was attacked along the whole frontier of Normandy; his towns and castles were quickly taken; and a report was spread that the friends of Duke Robert had designs upon his life. The war lasted two years, but it was concluded by a treaty by which Henry regained all that he had lost. The interests of the young prince were entirely overlooked in it, and the estates and honours of the faithful Helie were taken from him and given to a Count of Anjou, whose daughter was to be married to Henry's only son Prince William. These arrangements involved the demand of large sums of money from the English people, who had been severely taxed three years before, when Henry had married his daughter Matilda to the Emperor of Germany.

When secure of Normandy Henry had leisure to check the incursions of the Welsh, and, following them into their mountain fastnesses, obtained many advantages over them. One object on which his mind appeared to be intensely occupied was the securing all these dominions to his son; and he required the barons and prelates of both Normandy and England to swear fealty and do homage to the boy, but his want of good faith tended to frustrate his own designs. He had broken the agreement which he had entered into to marry his son to the daughter of the Count of Anjou, he had belied many promises made in his hour of need to the Norman barons, and he had secretly assisted a revolt against the French king. All these now leagued against him; and a war began, which continued for two years, and was only ended through the mediation of the Pope. But by the treaty of peace Henry preserved Normandy, and Louis consented to receive the homage due to him for the duchy from the son instead of the father.

Elated by success, Henry returned to England; but not long to enjoy his triumph, for he was destined to lose, by a sudden and untimely death, his only son, the heir to his greatness, in whose favour he had formed so many ambitious designs and been guilty of so much wrong. On the 25th of November (A. D. 1120) Prince

William embarked with a large party of young nobles, in a ship gallantly equipped. It was usual to give wine to the sailors, and the Prince and his young companions had, with careless prodigality, distributed three casks among them. When the vessel at length set sail, after much revelry, it was quite dark, and the prince, anxious to overtake his father, who had sailed in the afternoon, urged his drunken crew to make all haste. Every sail was set, and fifty sturdy mariners were plying the oars with all their strength, when suddenly the ship struck on a rock that was covered by the tide, and immediately began to fill. The prince was hurried into a boat, but his sister Marie had been left behind in the ship, and her shrieks touched his heart. He ordered the boat to be put back to take her in; and instantly such numbers of the men leaped in, that the boat was swamped, and all in her perished. Of the whole number of persons in the ship one only escaped, a butcher of Rouen, by whom the circumstances attending the catastrophe were related.

The tidings reached England on the following day; but for three days more the courtiers did not dare to make them known to the king. At last they sent in to him a little boy, who, weeping bitterly, fell at his feet, and told him that the "White Ship" was lost and all on board drowned. The heart of Henry, hard as it was, was not insensible to this shock. He sank on the ground in a swoon, and though he lived for many years after, it was in such a state of gloomy dejection, that it was commonly said he never smiled again. The character of the young prince had not been such as to give occasion for the people of England to share in his grief; and the only good action recorded of Prince William is that by which he lost his life.

An old writer, mentioning some threats of the arrogant youth as to how he would serve the English when he should become king, adds, "But God said it shall not be thus; and so it fell out that his brow, instead of being girded with the crown of gold, was beaten against the rocks of the ocean."

Though now left without a child that could succeed him on the throne, Henry still kept his brother Robert in confinement, and still sought to injure that brother's son.

The prospects of this nephew had brightened a little, and he had been made Earl of Flanders by the King of France; but his subjects had revolted against him, and their insurrection had been fomented by Henry. In a skirmish with the insurgents William was wounded, and he died at the monastery of St. Omer, to which he had been conveyed. In his last moments he wrote to Henry to implore mercy for the Norman barons who had fought for him, and the request was granted.

Henry had lost his wife Matilda shortly before the death of his son, and he had afterwards married again; but, having no more children, he endeavoured to secure the succession to his only lawful daughter, the wife of the Emperor of Germany. This emperor had died soon after his marriage, and on the return of Matilda to England her father had married her to Geoffrey, Count of Anjou; which union, though it produced three sons, was a very unhappy one; and the last years of Henry's life were disturbed by the domestic broils between his daughter and her husband. He had passed four years on the Continent, when news came of an incursion of the Welsh, which demanded his presence in England; and he prepared to return, but he was overtaken by death. His health had long been declining, and he had suffered much from lowness of spirits. To restore himself to cheerfulness he one day went out hunting, and on his return thought proper to indulge in a dish of lampreys, a kind of food that always disagreed with him. After this supper he was attacked by indigestion and fever, which in a few days assumed a fatal character. He died on the 1st of December, 1135, after a reign of thirty-five years; and his body was conveyed to England, and interred in Reading Abbey, which he had himself erected.

The character of Henry has been differently represented by friends and enemies; but there can be no doubt that his vices greatly overbalanced any good qualities he may have possessed. His disregard of his engagements, or even his oaths, his covetousness, his duplicity, and his cruelty, are but poorly compensated by the intellectual attainments that gained for him the appellation of "Beauclerc," or the Fine Scholar. His offences are rather aggravated by the learning, refinement, and natural abilities by which he was distinguished above most of his contemporaries. The best thing that can be said of him is that, by the vigour of his government, he enforced respect for the laws, and that he maintained in England for a long time the state of tranquillity which is a necessary condition of public welfare.

The great aim of his ambition, and the inducement to many of his crimes, was to secure the throne to his family, and he cared little by what means he secured it. And yet, after all, he was unsuccessful. Death deprived him of his son; death robbed him of a son on whom his hopes had been placed; and a favourite set aside the succession of his daughter.

STEPHEN.

The territories of Henry, on either side of the Channel, were left by his will "to his daughter Matilda and her heirs for ever;"

and Stephen, Earl of Blois, the grandson of William the Conqueror by his daughter Adela, had taken a solemn oath to promote her succession. But Stephen had no more objection to break an oath than his uncle Henry had had before him. Without paying the slightest regard to his solemn engagement, he set about forthwith to obtain the crown for himself; no difficult task, as in these stormy times the warlike nobles considered it a disgrace to be governed by a woman.

At the period of Henry's death Stephen happened to be nearer to England than Matilda, and, taking advantage of his position, he immediately crossed the Channel, and obtained possession of the late king's money and jewels, generally the first step taken towards securing the crown.

The keys of the treasury were given up to him by the Bishop of Winchester, his own brother, and through his exertions Stephen obtained the sanction of the clergy and of the Archbishop of Canterbury, and was crowned at Westminster on the 26th of December. The Pope soon confirmed his title, and adopted him as "a son of the blessed apostle Peter and of the Holy Roman Church."

To secure his usurped dignity Stephen distributed very liberally the treasures and possessions of the Crown, and he also made large nominal concessions to the people; but in the same charter in which he promised to redress all grievances and restore all the good old laws and customs of Edward the Confessor he also granted great additional privileges to the nobles, whose power was already a source of great hardship to the classes below them.

He gave them, too, permission to fortify their castles and to build new ones; an unwise concession, which contributed largely to the frightful anarchy that ensued.

At first all went on in peace and harmony, and both in England and Normandy Stephen's throne appeared to be firmly established; but in the course of two years after, the spirit of revolt was displayed on every side, and sedition was no sooner suppressed in one place than it broke out in others; most of the great barons declaring that Stephen had not extended their privileges as far as he had promised, withdrew to their fortified castles, and renounced their allegiance to him. Stephen displayed great vigour on the occasion, and besieged one after another of their strongholds, and was everywhere successful: but he had soon to contend with a more powerful enemy.

Matilda and her friends considered the present condition of his affairs as affording them a favourable opportunity; and in the year 1138 David, the King of Scotland, was induced to enforce her

claim to the Crown by invading the northern counties, while Robert, Earl of Gloucester, her half-brother, began a civil war in the west.

The next year Matilda landed at Arundel in Sussex, and Stephen, with a chivalrous feeling not uncommon in those days, gave her permission to proceed in safety to join her brother at Bristol. The war thus began lasted for fourteen years; during which England presented everywhere a scene of oppression, calamity, and famine.

In the year 1141 Stephen was taken prisoner, and Matilda was crowned in her turn and blessed by the papal legate. But her triumph was of short duration, for her arrogance and pride were offensive to the people, and in a few weeks the citizens of London rose against her, and she was obliged to make a precipitate escape. The Earl of Gloucester was taken prisoner at Winchester, and was then exchanged for Stephen, who, on his release from captivity, was again acknowledged king.

Stephen now pursued the contest vigorously, and besieged Matilda at Oxford; whence she had to fly secretly at midnight, after which she withdrew to the Continent.

In 1149 Henry her son, who had attained the age of sixteen, began to assert his claim to the crown of England, as well as to the duchy of Normandy, of which he obtained possession. By the death of his father, he inherited Anjou and Maine; and three years afterwards, by a marriage with Eleanor, the divorced queen of Louis VII. of France, he obtained also the great duchy of Aquitaine. He then invaded England; and the civil war would have been renewed, but that at this juncture Stephen's son died, and the rivals came to an agreement that Stephen should reign in peace during his life, and that Henry Plantagenet should be his successor.

In 1154 Stephen died, and was buried by the side of his wife Maud, to whom he had been much attached, and who had died three years before him, at the monastery of Faversham in Kent.

Much is said by the Saxon chroniclers of the miseries of this reign, although it does not appear that Stephen himself was ever guilty of the atrocious cruelty that had disgraced his predecessor. The barons, whom he had allowed to fortify their castles, committed all kinds of outrages upon the surrounding population. They seized all whom they supposed to have any property, threw them into prison, and "tortured them for their gold and silver. Some they hanged up by their feet, and smoked with foul smoke; some by the thumbs or by the beard, and hung coats of heavy mail on their feet. They threw them into dungeons with adders, snakes, and toads. They made many thousands perish with hunger. Tribute

after tribute was laid upon towns and cities; and when the townsmen had nothing more to give, their houses were set on fire. All was desolation; the poor died of hunger, and those who had been rich begged their bread. As for the land, thou mightest go a whole day's journey and not find an acre tilled. Never was more mischief done by heathen invaders." Such was the state of England during the greater part of the nineteen years of Stephen's reign.

HENRY II., surnamed Plantagenet.

Henry Plantagenet, when six weeks after Stephen's death he landed in England to take possession of his kingdom, was also master of nearly a third of the territories now included in that of France. He brought with him a splendid retinue and his wife Eleanor, whose stern character was destined to influence so many events of his reign. He had married her evidently for mercenary motives, as, besides being more than twice his own age, she was a woman of notoriously bad character. On the arrival of the pair in England everything wore a bright aspect. They received the homage of the nobility at Winchester, and on the 19th of December were crowned at Westminster, amidst the acclamations of the people.

The first acts of Henry's government corresponded with the high idea entertained of his abilities. He dismissed the mercenary troops, and levelled to the ground many of the castles erected with the consent of Stephen; but, before their destruction was complete, his mind was occupied by the affairs of the Continent. His younger brother Geoffroy had advanced a claim to Anjou and Maine, and had invaded those territories. Henry crossed the sea, and, having detached the King of France from his brother's interests, compelled Geoffroy to resign his claim for a very moderate pension, although he had sworn over the dead body of his father to relinquish to him the provinces in question.

On his return to England Henry found himself engaged in hostilities with the Welsh, who were still struggling for their independence. At first he was repulsed with serious loss; but after a few months the Welsh were glad to purchase peace by the resignation of such portions of their native territory as they had taken from Stephen.

Geoffroy did not live long to exact the payment of this annuity, but before he died the citizens of Nantes, in Lower Brittany, had offered him the government of their city, which he accepted. On his death, to the surprise of everybody, Henry claimed the free city of Nantes as hereditary property devolving to him by his brother's decease, and crossing the Channel with a large army,

forced the citizens of Nantes to submit. He then took possession of the whole country between the Loire and Villaine, and, having purchased the French king's neutrality by affiancing his eldest son to Margaret, the infant daughter of Louis, he prosecuted his designs on the rest of Brittany by arranging another marriage of his youngest son with the daughter of Conan, the hereditary count or duke of that country. Conan agreed to bequeath to his daughter at his death all his rights over Brittany, and Henry undertook to support him in his present power during his life. But the ambition of the King of England was not yet satisfied.

His authority already extended along the whole coast of France, from Dieppe to Bayonne, but he desired to extend it still farther, namely, across the isthmus that joins France to Spain, and along the French coast of the Mediterranean. He therefore asserted his claim to the great earldom of Toulouse, which he declared to be his by the right of his wife Eleanor, though female succession was contrary to the laws of the country. This claim was resisted by the French king, who roused himself to exertion to check this new and formidable encroachment.

A brief war ensued between the two kings, in which Henry took a few fortresses in the earldom of Toulouse; but a truce was concluded at the end of the year, which in 1160 was converted into a formal peace; Henry's eldest son doing homage to the French king for the duchy of Normandy, and Henry being permitted to retain the few places he had conquered in the earldom of Toulouse. This peace was soon broken; but Louis was no match for the powerful and politic Henry; and, after shivering a few lances and besieging a few castles, another peace was concluded through the mediation of the Pope.

In all his wars and negotiations on the Continent Henry had been ably assisted by his favourite Thomas à Becket; a very remarkable man, who, though of humble birth, had risen rapidly to distinction, and at Henry's accession had assisted the primate, Archbishop Theobald, in all the most active duties of his office. This position brought him under the notice of the king, who within two years created him chancellor, preceptor of the heir to the throne and warden of the Tower of London, besides bestowing on him the Castle of Berkhampstead, and 340 knights' fees. Becket lived in a style of magnificence that had never before been witnessed in Britain in a subject. He occupied a house of stately dimensions, splendidly furnished, in which he daily entertained numerous guests at a table spread with costly and luxurious viands. The sons of the chief nobility resorted to his house to perfect themselves in all chivalrous accomplishments. His entertainments, in which the king often partook, were the gayest and

most elegant of the day; and though he devoted much time to serious business, he found leisure also for hunting, hawking, gaming, and feats of horsemanship. Such a man was sure to find favour with King Henry, and indeed Becket's industry and abilities made him a most useful servant. Well would it have been for both if Henry had not attempted to raise him to a still more exalted rank.

In 1161 Theobald, the Archbishop of Canterbury, died, and after an interval of a year, during which Henry appropriated the revenues of the see, Becket was made Primate of England. From that moment he became an altered man. He had been soldier, statesman, courtier, man of the world, and a man of pleasure; he now became a severe ascetic, and renounced even the most innocent enjoyments of life. The train of attendants indeed was maintained in their accustomed splendour, but in his own person he practised the utmost austerity. He wore sackcloth next his skin, lived mostly on bread and water, lacerated his body with frequent scourging, and daily washed the feet of thirteen beggars, as an exercise of humility. But notwithstanding all this, he was still at heart as ambitious as ever, and though already the second person in the kingdom, he secretly aspired to be the first.

The king manifested an inclination to invade the privileges of the church; but Becket made the most determined resistance to all such attempts, and denied the authority of the civil courts over the clergy, even in a case of felony and murder.

A council summoned at Westminster decided the dispute in favour of the king; but Becket refused to sign their enactments, and thereupon the king deprived him of the manor of Eye and the Castle of Berkhampstead.

Another great council was then summoned by the king to meet at the Castle of Clarendon near Salisbury; and a set of ordinances was there drawn up, which received the name of the Constitutions of Clarendon. In these it was declared that the clergy should be amenable to the common law in all causes not strictly ecclesiastical; and also that the king should hold all vacant sees, and receive their emoluments till the vacancy should be filled. The Pope now interfered; and, after some attempts to reconcile the disputants, supported the archbishop in his rejection of the Constitutions of Clarendon. Becket was commanded to appear before the king in the town of Northampton, and there charged with a breach of allegiance, with various acts of contempt against the royal authority, and condemned to a heavy fine; and he was also ordered to render an account of all his receipts from vacant abbeys and bishoprics during his chancellorship, and to

refund some large sums of money which had probably been given to him by the king in his days of favour. The balance due to the king was set down at such an enormous sum, that Becket perceived it was intended to ruin him; but he was still undaunted; and braving the wrath of Henry, he went in person to the palace, bearing the archiepiscopal cross in his hand. He was finally sentenced to imprisonment, but made his escape to the Continent, where he obtained the protection of the King of France and of the Pope, who gave him an asylum in a splendid abbey in Burgundy; while Henry, on his side, not only seized on the revenues of Canterbury, but issued a sentence of exile against all who had been connected with Becket by consanguinity or friendship, including even women and children.

At length a slow and reluctant reconciliation was effected; and Becket returned to England, and was reinstalled in his archbishopric. On the Christmas-day succeeding his return he preached a sermon on the words "I come to die among you," but added, that before his death he would avenge some of the wrongs the church had suffered; and at the same time he publicly excommunicated three of the clergy who had treated him with disrespect. Henry, who was on the Continent, was informed of these proceedings, and bitterly exclaimed, "Is there none who will deliver me from this turbulent priest?"

There were four knights present when he uttered these words, who, having perhaps some injuries of their own to avenge, received them as Becket's death-warrant. They immediately set out for Canterbury; and attended by twelve men abruptly entered the archbishop's palace and ordered him to leave the kingdom. Becket replied with his accustomed spirit; and even when they went into the courtyard and armed themselves, he quietly proceeded to the performance of his official duties in the cathedral. The attendants wished to secure the doors, but he forbade them, saying, they must not make a castle of a church; and his enemies soon after rushed in. It was by this time evening, and the great church only lit here and there by a small lamp, so that Becket might easily have hidden himself; but when they asked "Where is the archbishop?" he at once came forward. They then attacked him, dragged him down, and murdered him before St. Benedict's altar, A.D. 1171.

The murderers withdrew without molestation; but the most terrible excitement prevailed over the country when the event became known. The people regarded Becket as a martyr; and expressed the utmost veneration for his memory. Some orders of the clergy, indeed, attempted to restrain the expression of this feeling, but in vain; miracles were said to be wrought at his tomb;

pilgrimages were made to it from all parts of the kingdom, in one year above 100,000; and he was canonised as a saint by the Pope.

At the news of this tragical event Henry expressed the utmost grief and consternation, and declared that his hasty words had been entirely misinterpreted. He shut himself up in his room and refused food for three days; but at the same time he ordered an account of his sorrows to be sent to the Pope, whose displeasure he greatly dreaded. In the month of May following he took an oath before a vast concourse of the people and clergy that he had neither ordered nor desired the death of the archbishop; and by this means, and also by lavishing his gold freely among the cardinals at Rome, he diverted the pontiff's anathemas from himself, and induced him to level them only at the actors and accomplices of the murder. The four knights who had committed it went to Rome, and submitted to the penances enjoined; which included a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, that being considered an act of such merit as to expiate the greatest guilt.

The year following the death of Becket was made memorable by the conquest of Ireland. Henry had obtained from Pope Adrian authority to effect this conquest in the second year of his reign, but had not then availed himself of it, and in the meantime Ireland had been almost subjected to the sway of Dermond, King of Leinster. In his struggle for supremacy Dermond had been assisted by Hugh Fitz-Stephen, a Welsh knight, and by Strongbow, Earl of Strighul, whose successes attracted the attention of Henry; and in the year 1174 he went himself with an army to Ireland, where he had an easy task, for the conquest had been already achieved. The Irish princes submitted without a struggle, and he was generally acknowledged as sovereign of the country, though his occupation of it was very imperfect.

This conquest added much to Henry's reputation, both in England and on the Continent; but the latter years of his life were embittered by civil wars and domestic broils. He had been an unfaithful husband, and Queen Eleanor was a vindictive wife; and among other modes of revenge she had adopted that of encouraging his sons in repeated rebellions.

His sons had no excuse for their unnatural behaviour, for his conduct towards them had been very indulgent and he had made a splendid provision for them. The eldest, Henry, he had even had crowned as his successor, and waited upon him at his coronation. This young prince was to succeed him in Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine as well as in England; Richard, the second son, was invested with the estates of his mother, Aquitaine and Poitou; Geoffrey was to have Brittany; and Ireland was destined for the youngest, John.

With these prospects in view Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey rebelled against him, and made war upon him, both in England and on the Continent; but they were not successful, and the eldest soon fell a victim to a malady brought on or agravated by vexation. He died at Limoges in France in 1183.

While Henry was at war with his unnatural sons on the Continent, and was preparing to reduce the castles in Poitou, news arrived that the King of Scots had invaded England with an army of 80,000 men. He immediately mounted his horse, rode to the coast, and embarked for England in the very midst of a storm. Perhaps amid his calamities he began really to feel the remorse for his share in the murder of Becket, which in the first instance seems more likely to have been feigned, and his penitent sorrow was doubtless also increased by superstitious terror. As soon as he set foot on shore he mounted his horse and rode to Canterbury without taking any other refreshment than bread and water. When he came in sight of the cathedral he dismounted, and walked to the tomb with bare and bleeding feet. He then prostrated himself before the shrine of the saint, and remained in fasting and prayer a whole day and night. After this he submitted to a penance still more humiliating; he assembled a chapter of the clergy, put a scourge of knotted cords into the hands of each, and presented his bare shoulders to be lashed by them.

In the morning he received absolution, and on the same day his generals obtained a signal victory over the Scots; a proof it was supposed of his reconciliation with Heaven and Thomas à Becket.

After the death of Prince Henry the confederacy which had been formed against his father was partly broken up by the king's victorious arms, and partly fell to pieces of itself. Prince Geoffrey sought and obtained his father's pardon, and a momentary reconciliation also took place with Queen Eleanor; but the family concord lasted only a few months. Geoffrey demanded the earldom of Anjou, and on this being refused, withdrew to the French court, to prepare for another war. Soon after his turbulent career, like that of his brother Henry, was cut short by his being dismounted at a tournament, and trampled to death under the feet of the other knights' horses. At this time, A.D. 1186, Philip II. reigned in France, and, after burying Geoffrey with great pomp, he invited Prince Richard to his court. Supported by Philip, Richard raised the standard of revolt in Aquitaine; but the people did not respond to his call, and he was compelled to seek his father's pardon, and afterwards swore allegiance to him on the New Testament in presence of a great assembly.

The misfortunes of the Christians in the Holy Land had been

the means of producing a brief peace between the kings of France and England. Jerusalem had been taken by Saladin, and they undertook to wrest it out of his hands. To provide the means for this Crusade it was enacted, with the consent of the barons, lay and ecclesiastic, that there should forthwith be levied a contribution of one-tenth of all rents for one year, as well as a tenth of all the moveable property in the country, with the exception of the books of the clergy and the arms and horses of the knights.

The sum thus raised was found, however, to be insufficient, and then Henry had recourse to extortion and to violent measures against the Jews, upon whom was imposed a tax of one-fourth of their personal property.

But the money thus wrung from the people, whether Jews or Christians, was never employed against the Saracens. Richard the Lion-Hearted, as he has been called, though enthusiastic almost to madness in the cause of the Crusades, in which he was one of the first to take up arms, did not like to enter on the expedition without being accompanied by his brother John; not at all out of love for him, but for fear that in his absence his father might bestow upon John the English crown. To prevent this he asked for the company of his brother to the Holy Land, and when it was refused, employed his troops in again making war upon his father. In this unholy contest he was joined by Philip of France, and Henry, whose iron frame was now suffering from the inroads of disease and grief, was at length unable to struggle against them longer. After the loss of many of his towns, and the desertion of many of his knights, he was compelled to agree to terms that weakened his power and lessened his dignity.

In a clause of the treaty to which Henry was obliged to consent it was stipulated that all such barons as had gone over to Richard should remain his liege men and vassals, unless they chose to return to his father. Before agreeing to this, Henry, who was ill in bed, asked for a list of their names. This was brought to him, and the first name that struck his eye was that of his beloved son John. "Is it true," exclaimed the broken-hearted father, starting up in his bed, "that John, the child of my heart, he whom I cherished more than all the rest, and for whom I have drawn on my head all these troubles, hath verily betrayed me?" He found it was too true, and falling back on his bed, and turning his face to the wall, he said: "Let everything go as it will; I have no longer care for myself or the world." This last stroke was too heavy for him to bear. He died very shortly afterwards, after cursing in the bitterness of his heart the children he left behind him. Some priests who were around him exhorted the dying king to retract these maledictions, but he refused to do so; and, as soon as the breath

was out of his body it was forsaken by the attendants, and bishops, priests, and barons took a hurried departure. It was not without difficulty that people were found to wrap the body in a winding-sheet and convey it to the Abbey of Fontevraud about seven miles off. On its way Richard met the funeral procession, and accompanied it to the church; and here, when the dead king lay stretched upon the bier, his face was uncovered, that his son might look on it for the last time. He is said to have shuddered as he gazed on the face, which was still marked with the expression of a long agony, and he knelt down before the altar and prayed. But no sooner was the funeral over than he quitted the church, and he did not enter it again till that time when, cut off in the full strength and prime of manhood, he was carried thither a corpse to be laid at the feet of his father.

During the reign of Henry England had made many advances in power and prosperity. With a few brief exceptions peace had been maintained in the interior of the country, and the condition of the people had been elevated and improved.

The character of Henry was certainly faulty, but it possessed many noble and endearing qualities. Among his peculiarities, the most remarked was his restless activity. He was seldom seen in a posture of repose, and his attendants were wearied by his constant removals from place to place. This restlessness increased the irritability of his temper, and in his moments of violent passion he was not to be approached without danger; but when unprovoked he was courteous, affable, and playful in his manners, and in their infancy an affectionate parent to his children. His severity towards them in later years was the result of their undutiful and cruel conduct towards him; and it is declared by Peter of Blois that no one was more gentle to the distressed, more affable to the poor, or more overbearing to the proud.

RICHARD I., SURNAMED CŒUR DE LION.

Richard whose valour had obtained for him the name of Cœur de Lion or the Lion-Hearted, succeeded to his father's throne and kingdom without any opposition. One of his first acts was to send over to England an order for the liberation of Queen Eleanor, who had been a long time before imprisoned by her husband, and whom Richard invested for the present with the office of regent, especially charging her to look after the late king's money, and accordingly she hastened to Winchester, and took possession of the treasures. After the lapse of nearly two months Richard arrived in England, and was crowned at Westminster with unusual magnificence. He now expressed great remorse for his conduct

towards his father; and one mode in which he evinced it was by forbidding those who had been his own friends during the quarrel ever to appear in his presence again. His general conduct was conciliatory towards all classes of society; but there was one terrible exception to his mildness, in the case of the unfortunate Jews. These despised people, though they were constantly made the subjects of insult and outrage, had assembled in considerable numbers in London on the occasion of King Richard's coronation, for the purpose of presenting him with "some honourable gift," whereby they might hope to secure his favour.

Although Richard had issued a proclamation forbidding "Jews or women" to be present either in the church while he was crowned, or within the hall while he was at dinner, a few of them had ventured in, in order, in their oriental fashion, to lay their offerings at his feet. The offerings were willingly received; but while the Jews were passing through the gate a Christian on some pretence struck one of them, whereupon some of the courtiers fell upon them and robbed them. A cry was then raised that the king had given orders for their massacre, and it was an order the people were but too willing to obey.

They pursued the unhappy victims through the streets, and slaughtered all they could reach. Such as escaped into their houses found no refuge within them, for the houses were set on fire and their occupants burnt; and if they endeavoured to escape they were driven back with spears into the flames, while their shops and warehouses were ransacked and plundered.

The massacre continued above four-and-twenty hours, and it was made the signal for a similar ferocious attack on the Jews throughout the kingdom. In the city of York the principal Jews, being shut up in the castle, put their wives and families to death, and then destroyed themselves.

Richard then issued a proclamation, stating that he took the Jews under his own immediate protection; but no other judicial measures followed this fearful outrage than the execution of three men, and that only because while burning the houses of the Jews they had accidentally destroyed also some belonging to Christians.

But the affairs of his English subjects, whether Christian or Jew, did not now much interest Richard, for he was wholly occupied with thoughts of the Crusade. The Cross had lately sunk before the victorious Crescent. Sidon, Ascalon, and Jerusalem had fallen into the hands of Saladin, the Sultan of Egypt, and Tyre was only held by the annual sacrifice of thousands of lives.

To drive the Moslems from Jerusalem appeared to Richard to be now the highest duty of a warrior, a monarch, and a Christian.

He had undertaken the Crusade before he came to the throne, and he was impatient to proceed in his design. To the 100,000 marks left him by his father he added a large sum extorted from the purses of his subjects. He sold the royal castles and estates; he disposed of dignities and honours and places of trust publicly to the highest bidder; and he plundered all classes of his subjects, under the sanction of the Pope's authority: the grossest and most infamous extortions being practised by his order, alike on Jew and Gentile.

For the sum of 10,000 marks Richard also absolved the King of Scotland from his obligation to do homage to England, and he even sold the church preferments to fill his coffers.

Having at length, by all these means, raised a sufficient sum, he completed his armament and left the kingdom, after nominating Hugh Pudsey, Bishop of Durham, to be regent during his absence.

At Messina in Sicily he was joined by Philip, King of France, with an armament scarcely inferior to his own; and after various delays the two monarchs determined to remain and winter in Sicily.

The characters of Philip and Richard differed widely. The former was crafty and dissimulating as well as haughty and ambitious. The latter, though vain and overbearing, was generous and frank. It was scarcely possible for these men to remain long in friendship, and before they left Sicily a foundation was laid for mutual jealousy and hatred. Richard had been contracted when a boy to Adelaide, the sister of the French king, and Philip had confidently relied upon the fulfilment of the project; but Richard had on his way to Sicily fallen in love with Berengaria, a princess of Navarre, and married her, declining the French princess, of whose character some bad reports were prevalent.

The rival monarchs set sail in the spring of 1191 for Acre, which a body of Crusaders had been besieging for two years. On the arrival of Philip and Richard it was soon taken, and the capture was attended with circumstances of great cruelty; thousands of prisoners being massacred in cool blood forty days afterwards.

The banners of the French and English kings were raised with equal honours on the ramparts of Acre; but they had scarcely entered the town before Philip expressed his determination to return to Europe. He pleaded ill health as the cause of his departure, but it was believed that jealousy and hatred of Richard were his real inducements to this desertion of the common cause, which was thought so disgraceful, that he was hissed and cursed by the Crusaders as he left the place.

He had taken a solemn oath not to make any attack upon Richard's dominions; but his subsequent conduct made it evident

that he paid but little regard to it, and he left the Duke of Burgundy, who commanded his troops, secret orders to throw every obstacle in the way of Richard's success.

On the departure of the French king Richard prepared to march upon Jerusalem; he was met near Azotus, the *Ashdod* of the Bible, by Saladin, over whom he gained a complete victory. Seven thousand soldiers and thirty-two emirs were slain, and Richard advanced without further opposition to Jaffa, or Joppa, of which he took possession. He would have advanced to Jerusalem at once, but the French barons urged the necessity of restoring the fortifications of Jaffa before they proceeded. By this delay Saladin was again enabled to make head against them, for, instead of occupying themselves only with the fortifications, the Crusaders indulged in the sports of the field while hordes of Saracens were scouring the country. At length the Crusading army moved from Jaffa; but it was now November, and incessant rains wetted the warriors to the skin, rusted their arms, and rendered the roads almost impassable. They found quarters at Bethany, about twelve miles from Jerusalem; but famine, disease, and desertion had so thinned their ranks, that Richard was compelled to retreat to Ascalon.

This retreat was marked by the most terrible privations and sufferings; and when the wearied and half-famished soldiers reached Ascalon they found it in such a ruinous condition, that they were obliged to restore in some measure its dismantled fortifications before they could venture to repose in it.

To set a good example, Richard himself worked upon the walls and battlements like a common mason, and all the leaders and men of rank, including even bishops and abbots, did the same, with the exception only of the Duke of Austria. He, when urged to exert himself, replied that he was the son neither of a mason nor of a carpenter; upon which reply it is said Cœur de Lion struck or kicked him, and turned him and his vassals out of the town.

The absence of Richard from England had in the meantime been productive of great inconvenience and disturbance among his subjects.

The regency had been wrested from the hands of the Bishop of Durham by Longchamp, Bishop of Ely and Chancellor of England; a rapacious and insolent man, whose conduct at length exasperated the barons so far, that they rose against his authority, and the prelate had to fly from the kingdom in the disguise of a woman. By this time Philip, King of France, was threatening an attack upon Normandy, and he invited Prince John to join with him in robbing Richard of his dominions; but John, though desirous of accepting the invitation, and himself entertaining designs upon

the English crown, was prevented by the interference of Queen Eleanor.

Intelligence of these events having reached Richard at Ascalon in 1192, he prepared to return home. When about to embark, however, he was informed that Saladin had laid siege to Joppa, and that the Christian garrison was reduced to the last extremity, and Richard immediately determined to march to their rescue.

The opposing armies met in the open country behind Joppa, and Richard, though inferior in force, was again victorious. But as his health was declining, and he was desirous of returning to England, he concluded with Saladin a treaty of peace. By this treaty Ascalon was to be dismantled, Jaffa and Tyre were to be left to the peaceable occupation of the Christians, and the pilgrims from the west were to have full liberty of repairing to Jerusalem without being subject to tolls, taxes, or persecutions.

In this war the valour of Richard had won for him high renown even amongst his enemies. It was said that his name was employed by Syrian mothers to frighten their infants into silence; and if a horse started from the road the rider would say, "Dost thou think King Richard is in that bush?"

The King of England at length set sail from Acre with his queen, his sister Joan, and the survivors from the bishops and nobles who had followed his standard; but on the passage a storm arose and scattered the fleet. Some of the vessels were wrecked on the hostile shores of Egypt and Barbary, where the crews were made slaves; others reached friendly ports, and returned to England; while that which contained Richard's wife and other ladies reached Sicily in safety. Richard, who was in another vessel, came to the island of Corfu; but fearing the malice of his enemies, he changed his course, and steered for the Adriatic. His purpose was to pursue his way homewards from the head of that sea, through Styria and Germany, wearing the disguise of a pilgrim. But his habits of profuse generosity, which had contributed so much to render him popular, now betrayed him.

The Duke of Austria had arrived from the Holy Land some time before him, and when Richard reached Erperg, a village close to Vienna, he fell into his enemy's hands. He had sent a boy richly dressed to the market-place of Vienna to buy provisions; and the youth being suspected, was seized, and induced to reveal the retreat of the king. Richard was taken, and committed to the castle of Tiernsteign; but at the festival of Easter, 1193, he was transferred, on the payment of a large sum of money, to the custody of Henry, Emperor of Germany; after which he was for some time lost sight of, no one knowing where he was confined.

The tidings of Richard's imprisonment grieved every one in England except his brother John, who hoped to turn the event to his own advantage; and Philip of France also endeavoured to obtain some profit from it.

He immediately invaded Normandy; but the barons remained faithful to Richard, and led by the Earl of Surrey, who had returned from the Holy Land, they defeated the perfidious confederates Philip and John.

John then openly claimed the crown of England, asserting that his brother was dead; but his claim was treated with contempt, and not long after, the place where the imprisoned king was languishing was accidentally discovered. The story commonly related is that a French minstrel, playing upon his harp near the fortress where Richard was confined, a tune which he was known to be fond of, was answered by the king from within, who with his harp played the same tune, and thus made known the place of his confinement. Other accounts attribute the discovery to the copy of a letter from his gaoler Henry to Philip, in which it was mentioned that Richard was loaded with chains, and confined in a castle of the Tyrol.

The discovery shocked all Europe, for everywhere Richard was known as the greatest champion of the Cross, and the most violent indignation was excited. The Pope at once excommunicated the Duke of Austria, and threatened the emperor with the same sentence unless he liberated his noble prisoner. In England the greatest anxiety prevailed; but while the people were longing for his return his brother John hurried over to Normandy, surrendered the best part of it to the French king, and obtained from him a host of foreign mercenary troops, with which he returned to England. But the prelates and barons raised Richard's standard, and compelled John to retreat; while Philip was equally unfortunate in Normandy, for, after advancing to Rouen, he was driven back by the enraged people, and compelled to a disgraceful flight into his own territories.

The authority of the Pope and the weight of European opinion at length compelled the Emperor of Germany to produce his royal prisoner. Richard was brought before the diet at Hagenau; but the first interview was discouraging to his prospects; demands so enormous were made that the captive would not comply with them saying, he would rather die where he was than drain his kingdom and degrade his crown.

As one means of extorting the required ransom, Richard was accused of many crimes and misdemeanors; but his defence was so manly, clear, and convincing, that the diet acquitted him; and even the emperor declared himself convinced of his innocence, embraced him, and promised him his friendship. So heavy a ransom was exacted, nevertheless, that five months elapsed before

he was released. He had to pay 100,000 marks of silver, and give sixty hostages to the emperor and seven to the duke for the payment of a further sum of 50,000. Queen Eleanor and the Bishop of Rouen themselves carried the money to Germany, and then at length Richard was restored to his expectant people, in whose minds his fame, his captivity, and his romantic adventures seem to have excited an interest and affection to which as a sovereign he had no claim.

He landed at Sandwich on the 12th of June, 1194, and was received with enthusiastic and honest joy. A magnificent reception was given to him in London, and the citizens made, in honour of the occasion, such a profuse display of their wealth as called forth from the German lords who attended him the remark, that if the emperor had known how rich they were, he would not so easily have parted with their king.

In order to confirm his right to the throne of England, Richard was now crowned a second time with great pomp at Winchester, and he then convoked an assembly at Nottingham, at which he confiscated all the possessions of his brother John, who had done his utmost to prolong his captivity. But Richard was of a generous and forgiving temper, and he soon pardoned his base brother, remarking that he wished he could as soon forget his offences as John would his pardon.

The forgiveness of the French monarch could scarcely be expected from him, and as Philip was still making war on the frontiers of his continental dominions, he went over to defend them, and defeated his old enemy in several engagements, besides capturing several of his towns. The war continued for three years; but in the last of these (1198), after gaining a victory over Philip at Gisons, Richard concluded a truce of five years with him, through the mediation of the Pope's legate. Richard now prepared to return to England; but he chose before doing so, to lay siege to the castle of the Viscount of Limoges, who had found a treasure to which the king laid claim. Whilst heading the assault which led to the capture of the castle, he was shot by an arrow in the shoulder; and though the wound was not in itself dangerous, it was rendered mortal by the unskilfulness of the surgeon employed to extract the arrow-head, which was broken, and lodged in the shoulder.

Finding he had but a short time to live, Richard summoned to his presence Bertrand de Gourdun, the young man who had shot the fatal arrow, and who had been spared from the general butchery of the garrison, probably that he might be subjected to greater torture. Richard asked why he had sought his life; and the youth replied that Richard had killed his father and his

two brothers with his own hand, and that he himself was content to die if he had freed the world from an oppressor.

Richard magnanimously forgave him, and ordered that he should be presented with 100 shillings; but these generous intentions were not fulfilled, for Marchade, the leader of the mercenaries, had him flayed alive, and then hung. Some accounts say that Joan, the sister of Cœur de Lion, tortured him with her own hand.

Richard expired on the 6th of April, 1199, at the age of forty-two, after having expressed great contrition for his sins. His reign in England is not memorable, as he passed most of his time in Asia and on the Continent,—in war or in imprisonment. The chief act of his life was to crush the power of the Turks, and to protect those countries in which Christianity was professed.

JOHN, SURNAMED LACKLAND.

At the time of Richard's death John was in Normandy, and on receiving the intelligence he immediately took the necessary measures for securing the crown. John was unpopular in England; but as the evils of an unsettled government were in that age very great, his claim was warmly asserted by Hubert, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and he was afterwards chosen as king by the barons and prelates. In Normandy, however, his sovereignty was disputed by, or rather for, young Arthur, the son of John's elder brother Prince Geoffrey; and this claim was supported by the King of France. John was nevertheless received at Rouen without opposition, and was there inaugurated, being girt with the sword of the duchy, and having the golden coronal put on his head.

He came to England in the month of May, and went directly to the church of Saint Peter at Westminster to claim the crown. Arthur had been repeatedly declared the heir by the late king; but now John produced a will, which he said Richard had made in his last moments, appointing him as his successor. Little notice was taken of this; but it was declared that, whether true or false, it was of no weight, as the crown was not hereditary, and no one could be lawfully king who had not been chosen by the great body of the nation. The crown was then presented to him, and after he had taken the usual oaths to protect the church and govern justly, all present hailed him with "Long live the king!"

Having thus secured the throne of England, John lost no time in attending to his interests on the Continent; and for two years he carried on a desultory warfare with Philip, who fought on behalf of young Arthur; but in the spring of 1200 a treaty was concluded

between the two kings, by which it was agreed that John should remain in possession of his brother's dominions, and Philip abandon Prince Arthur and marry his son to the English king's niece.

So far all was well for John, but he soon created new enemies. He had been married ten years to Avisa, the daughter of the Earl of Gloucester; but it happened that during his stay on the Continent he conceived a lawless passion for Isabella, daughter of the Count of Angoulême and wife of the Count of La Marche. He therefore without ceremony divorced Avisa, and married Isabella, the Archbishop of Bordeaux performing the ceremony. After this he brought his new wife over to England, and had her crowned at Westminster, and himself crowned over again at the same time.

Many noblemen took up arms along with the Count de la Marche to punish John for these lawless and atrocious proceedings; and in England his insolence, rapacity, and generally unprincipled conduct had provoked both clergy and laity, so that a regular and extensive opposition was formed against him. He commanded his English vassals to attend him to the Continent, but many of them declared that the war was too dishonourable for them to embark in. He went over to Normandy himself, accompanied by Isabella; but it was not to fight, for he betook himself to the court of King Philip, where he was courteously entertained, and where he spent his time in pleasure while the insurgents were daily gaining strength.

Philip, however, while he was feasting John at his table, was secretly in league with his enemy the Count de la Marche; and he now (in the year 1202) broke the peace by openly affording assistance to the insurgents in Aquitaine, and again declaring his intentions to support the claims of Arthur. War began once more, and at the very outset young Arthur was taken prisoner, as well as the Count de la Marche and 200 noble knights.

The captors inflicted on them the basest vengeance. They loaded them with irons, placed them bound in open carts drawn by bullocks, and afterwards threw them into dungeons in Normandy and England, where many of them were starved to death. Arthur was conveyed to the castle of Rouen, where he was believed to have been murdered; probably by the hands of his uncle John himself. The unfortunate young prince was stabbed and thrown into the Seine.

The rumour of this murder excited a general cry of horror and indignation; and in the year 1203 Philip, encouraged by the detestation in which John was held, again invaded Normandy. The fortresses submitted almost without resistance, and John was obliged to return to England. After a separation of ninety-two years Normandy was reunited to the French kingdom, and only Aquitaine and a few isolated castles in Brittany, Anjou, Maine, Tou-

raine, and Poitou left to John. The possession even of these was uncertain; and three years afterwards, when John made an attempt to recover his lost territories, after a brief struggle he again fled to England, covered with fresh disgrace.

In the meantime he became embroiled in a dangerous quarrel with the Pope. In 1205 Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury, died, and the monks of that monastery secretly elected their superior Reginald to the vacant see, and sent him to Rome to get his election confirmed by the Pope. As Reginald, however, gave offence by his premature assumption of the style of primate, they afterwards elected another candidate, Gray, Bishop of Norwich, and sent him also to Rome for the pontiff's approbation. The Pope declared both elections irregular, and ordered the monks to choose Stephen Langton, an Englishman by birth, but educated abroad, and at that time chancellor of Paris. John on his side maintained that, as King of England, he alone had a right to appoint the primate, and he drove the monks of Canterbury by violence from their convent and refused to admit Stephen Langton. Thereupon the Pope laid the kingdom under an interdict; in consequence of which no religious service, not even that for the dead, was allowed to be celebrated in the usual manner throughout the whole country.

> "The church by mandate shadowing forth the power
> She arrogates o'er heaven's eternal door,
> Closes the gates of every sacred place.
> Straight from the sun and tainted air's embrace
> All sacred things are covered: cheerful morn
> Grows sad as night — no seemly garb is worn,
> Nor is a face allowed to meet a face
> With natural smile of greeting. Bells are dumb;
> Ditches are graves — funereal rites denied;
> And in the churchyard he must take his bride
> Who dares be wedded!"
>
> WORDSWORTH.

The effect of the interdict was, however, in this instance, not altogether what had been anticipated, for John seized the estates of the clergy who obeyed it, as well as the revenues of many of the convents, and by these means, and by imprisoning and torturing the Jews, he collected a large sum, with which he made two successful expeditions to Wales and Ireland. He even, to revenge himself on the Pope, sent an embassy to the Prince of Morocco, and offered to turn Mahometan if he would help him; but after all he was no match for the sovereign pontiff, for he had greatly weakened his cause by alienating the affections of his subjects, and crowds of exiles were continually resorting to Rome and urging the Pope to take vengeance on him.

At last, in 1213, Innocent launched his deadliest thunderbolt

at the contumacious John; he pronounced a sentence of deposition against him; absolved his vassals from their allegiance; and called on all Christian princes to aid in dethroning him. He also sent Stephen Langton, with other English and Italian prelates, to the French court, to declare to the king and the whole nation that his Holiness authorised an immediate invasion of England. Philip was promised the special remission of his sins if he should execute this pious task, and drive John from the throne; and in obedience to this not unwelcome summons, the King of France collected a great army in Normandy, and prepared a large fleet at Boulogne and other ports of the Channel. John at first put on a bold face, and summoned every man capable of bearing arms to march to the coasts of Kent and Sussex, and collected all the vessels in his dominions in order to anticipate Philip's attack.

The English fleet crossed the Channel, took a French squadron at the mouth of the Seine, and swept the whole coast of Normandy. It then came back in triumph; but, notwithstanding this success, and that 60,000 men rallied round his standard at Barham Downs, John's courage failed him. He feared his own subjects, and it was well known that he would do anything rather than fight. The Pope's legate skilfully availed himself of this knowledge, and in a conference with John drew such a formidable picture of the French army of invasion, and represented the discontent of the English barons in such forcible colours, that his coward heart died within him. Pandulph then bade him remember that the Pope was a merciful master, who would require nothing that was not necessary either to the honour of the church or the security of John himself.

After a little wavering, John submitted, and declared himself ready to agree to any conditions the Pope should impose; and at the dictation of the legate took, in the Church of the Templars at Dover, the following extraordinary oath:—

"I John, by the grace of God King of England and Lord of Ireland, in order to expiate my sins, do of my own free-will and by the advice of my barons give to the Church of Rome, to Pope Innocent and his successors, the kingdom of England and all the prerogatives of my crown. I will hereafter hold them as the Pope's vassal. I will be faithful to God, to the Church of Rome, and to the Pope my master, and his successors legitimately elected; and I promise to pay him tribute of 1000 marks yearly; to wit, 700 for England, and 300 for Ireland."

Pandulph further stipulated that John should receive Stephen Langton as the primate; and then, when he had obtained all that he required, he gave John back his dishonoured crown.

As earnest of his subjection, John immediately offered Pan-

dulph some gold; but he trampled it under his feet, to signify that the Church of Rome scorned worldly riches. Some accounts, however, hint that he afterwards stooped down and picked it up.

In a few days the legate went back to France, in order that he might forbid Philip's invasion of a kingdom which was now the patrimony of St. Peter; but Philip was greatly enraged at being thus duped, and refused to abandon the enterprise that he had undertaken "for the remission of his sins;" but as, among some of his other great vassals, the Earl of Flanders now refused to follow him to England, he determined first to invade the Flemish territory, and he therefore besieged the city of Ghent.

His designs were frustrated, however, by the appearance of an English fleet, and the capture of a large number of his vessels. This great naval victory occasioned much rejoicing in England; and John resolved to take advantage of it to break some of his recent oaths. His nobles, however, did not approve of his conduct; and, after a series of altercations, the barons assembled in great power, calling themselves "the army of God and the Holy Church." They determined to demand from John a charter of privileges grounded on the charters which had been assented to by Henry I. and Edward the Confessor. At first John tried to bully, and then to cajole his adversaries; but, as these included now almost the whole nobility of England, and were neither to be coaxed nor frightened, John's heart again sank within him, and he agreed to meet his barons on the 15th of June, 1215, at a spot called Runnymead, between Windsor and Staines.

On the appointed day King John and the barons met accordingly on this green meadow by the River Thames. With John came Pandulph the legate, eight bishops, and fifteen barons and knights; on the other side came Fitz-Walter, and the whole nobility of England.

A scroll was presented to the king; and with scarcely any attempt to modify any of its clauses, and with a facility that might justly have created a suspicion of his sincerity, John signed the Great Charter; the Magna Charta as it is called, the noble commencement and foundation of English liberty.

No sooner, however, had the great assembly dispersed, and John found himself safe in Windsor Castle, than he resolved, if possible, to undo all that he had done.

He sent one of his creatures over to Flanders, Poitou, and Aquitaine to hire adventurers to come to England and fight against his subjects; messengers also were sent to Rome to implore the aid of the Pope; and others to such governors of his castles as were foreigners or men in his interest, commanding them to lay in provisions and put themselves in a state of defence. All this was

done secretly; but John himself excited suspicion by already evading some of the clauses of the charter.

The barons, in the joy of their triumph at Runnymead, had appointed a grand tournament to be held at Stamford; and John formed a plot to surprise London, where their chief strength lay, during their absence at this festival. A civil war followed, in which the barons had recourse to the assistance of the King of France; a circumstance that rendered the position of the country very critical. If John succeeded, it appeared likely that he would become a worse tyrant than he had been before; if the French king prevailed, England might become a province of France.

Louis, the son of Philip, landed at Sandwich on the 30th of May, 1216; and after committing great ravages in various parts of the country, marched to the capital, where he was joyfully received by both nobles and citizens.

After this he marched to Dover and laid siege to the castle while some of the barons proceeded to the attack of Windsor; but both places were ably defended.

In the meantime John, after running from place to place, assembled his forces at Stamford, and soon after made himself master of Lincoln, whence he made predatory incursions into the surrounding districts. He then came southward to Lynn in Norfolk, everywhere marking his presence by flames, blood, and devastation.

As the siege of Windsor Castle had been raised, and several circumstances had appeared favourable for his prospects, John now resolved to turn again towards the north. For this purpose he endeavoured to cross the estuary of the Wash by the sands at low water; but not having understood the state of the tide, he was overtaken by it, and though he himself escaped, he lost his carriages, baggage, and treasure.

In mournful silence, broken only by curses and useless complaints, he travelled to the Cistercian Abbey of Swineshead.

Here he ate gluttonously of fruit, and drank immoderately of cider; and this excess, the effect of which was probably increased by an irritated mind, brought on fever. He passed a sleepless and agitated night, seeming to suffer from a kind of horror; and the next day with difficulty got as far as Newark, where, after sending for a confessor, he lay down to die. As he lay on his death-bed messengers arrived from some of the barons, who, disgusted with the arrogant conduct of the French prince Louis, proposed to return to their allegiance. But it was too late for John to take advantage of their proposal; the tyrant was now himself a victim to fever; and he died, committing, as he said, his soul to God, and his body to St. Wulstan.

The throne of England has never been disgraced by a monarch so depraved as John. He was a rebellious son to a fond father, the persecutor of a generous brother, an unfaithful husband, and the murderer of his innocent nephew.

Though sometimes crouching under the power of the priesthood with the most abject servility when they were stronger than himself, he was always ready to revile and outrage the defenceless; and he appears to have been entirely destitute even of the lowest form of religious feeling, and a wanton violator of the most solemn oaths.

In the events of his reign, however, as in many other instances, the wise ordering of Providence brought good out of evil; and his tyranny, which drove the oppressed barons into rebellion, led to their obtaining the Magna Charta, and laid the foundation of British freedom.

Such a result from the folly and wickedness of John may well lead us to exclaim "This also cometh from the Lord, who is wonderful in counsel and in working."

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.

1068. Institution of the Curfew law.
1069. An insurrection in the north of England, and that part of the country reduced to a desert.
1074. Pope Gregory VII. forbids the marriage of priests.
1080. The Tower of London built by William, and a survey made of all the estates in England recorded in Domesday Book.
1095. A great council held at Clermont, in which the first Crusade is proposed.
1096. The departure of the first Crusaders.
1114. The Thames at London so dried up as to be only knee-deep between the bridge and the Tower.
1118. The order of the Knights Templars instituted.
1137. A great fire in London, when the bridge was burnt down.
1177. Glass windows first used in England.
1181. The polarity of the magnet and its possible utility in navigation mentioned in some verses of a Troubadour poet at the court of the Emperor of Germany.
1189. The manufacture of linen practised in England.

CHAP. VIII.

THE RELIGION, LAWS, LITERATURE, ARTS, COMMERCE, MANNERS, INDUSTRY, ETC. OF THIS PERIOD.

Religion.—THE invasion of the Normans produced little change in the constitution of the English Church. A blind obedience to the Pope was as much a tenet of the Norman kings and monks as it had been of their predecessors; perhaps more so. The injunction of celibacy to the clergy, however, met with great opposition; and though canon after canon was promulgated, commanding married priests to put away their wives, and the single to remain so, little attention was paid to these ordinances. Many of the priests even openly refused to obey; and this party became so strong, that in a council held at Winchester in 1070, those of the secular clergy who had wives were allowed to keep them. At a later date a council was held in London to enforce the obligation of clerical celibacy; and ten canons were passed on the subject more severe than any hitherto promulgated; but they were found powerless against the laws of nature.

The Crusades, as they were called, from the cross worn by the warriors engaged in them, were wars carried on by the Christian nations of the west from the end of the eleventh century to the end of the thirteenth for the conquest of Palestine.

They had their origin in the practice of pilgrimages, which then prevailed extensively, and in which the Tomb of the Redeemer naturally became a principal object of attraction. Crowds of palmers had been in the habit of resorting to it, and, as many of these had met with ill-usage from the Saracens, the idea occurred of wresting Jerusalem from their hands.

Although indirectly productive of much ultimate benefit, these wars were at this period the plague of Europe and the scourge of Asia and Egypt, and caused the ruin of millions of families. To defray the expenses of them the rich often oppressed their vassals, and compelled them, in their poverty and despair, to enlist in a Crusade.

Those who joined in the Crusades were frequently invested by the Pope with privileges detrimental to the common rights of their neighbours. During their time of service they were exempt from all prosecution for debt; they paid no taxes, nor any interest for borrowed money; they had power to alienate their lands without the consent of their superior; they had full pardon for their sins, past, present, and future, confirmed to them by papal bulls; and

they felt assured that, if they met their death in the holy warfare, angels would bear their souls to heaven. The holiness and great merit of these undertakings served, in their opinion, to cover crimes of the greatest enormity; murders, robberies, and licentious outrages were everywhere committed by these so-called armies of Christ; and their line of march was marked by blood and devastation. Previous to their departure most of them disposed of their possessions; and, to secure the protection of Heaven, bequeathed large donations to the church and the convents. Abbots and monks often accompanied the troops as commanders, volunteers, or chaplains; and, being removed from all control, abandoned themselves to luxury and profligacy.

Four of these extraordinary expeditions belong to the period now under consideration; the first began in 1097, the second in 1147, the third in 1189, and the fourth in 1203. Though professedly religious enterprises, they produced less effect upon the religion of the age in which they were undertaken than upon the social condition of the people. Among the phenomena that sprung out of them none presented a more expressive type of their character than the religious orders of knighthood. The earliest and most distinguished of these were the Knights Hospitallers of St. John, and the Knights Templars; both of which acquired establishments and extensive possessions in this country soon after their institutions.

Laws. — The government and laws established in England by the Normans were both founded on the feudal system. According to this, the king was the supreme lord of landed property, the term feudal implying that any possession so called is held from another. The land was regarded as a species of benefice, for which the baron owed state services to the crown; and his vassal, services of a similar nature to him. The latter had to fight for his lord in war, as the lord had to defend the throne; and throughout the feudal monarchies a regular chain of subordination and service was established, which was attended with the grievous oppression of the body of the people.

They were daily exposed to the insults and exactions of the nobles whose vassals they were, and from whose oppressive jurisdiction it was dangerous for them to appeal.

The state of England at the death of William the Conqueror, who established the feudal law, is thus described by an historian of this period: "The Normans had now fully executed the wrath of Heaven upon the English. There was hardly one of that nation who possessed any power; they were all involved in servitude and sorrow, insomuch that to be called an Englishman was considered as a reproach. In those miserable times many oppressive taxes

and tyrannical customs were introduced. The king himself, when he had let his lands at their full value, if another tenant came and offered more, gave them to him who offered most. The great men were inflamed with such a rage for money, that they did not care by what means it was acquired. The more they talked of justice the more unjustly they acted. Those who were called justiciaries were the fountains of all iniquity. Sheriffs and judges, whose duty it was to pronounce righteous judgments, were the most cruel of all tyrants, and greater plunderers than thieves and robbers."

The prerogative of "purveyance," as it was called, namely, the right possessed by the kings of England at this period of buying whatever they thought necessary for their courts or castles before any one else was served, was a source of great injury to the people.

The purveyors who attended the court often plundered and destroyed the whole country through which the king passed, and when they could not consume all the provisions in the houses they invaded they either sold or burnt them, and let loose their horses into the fields to destroy the corn.

The Saxon courts of justice were suffered to decline during this period, and the county court fell a few years after the Norman invasion by a stroke of despotism equally unjust and impolitic.

About the year 1085 the bishops and abbots were prohibited from sitting in them, and thereupon the lay noblemen thought it beneath their dignity to attend, and that hall of justice was gradually deserted. Courts were held in the monarch's palace for the trial of great causes and offences, and by the barons in the halls of their castles, where causes of a trivial nature were decided.

All these courts were corrupt; justice, or what passed for it, was bought and sold in them, and the Supreme Court of Judicature was open to none who did not bring presents. Money was demanded by the very barons of the Exchequer, and all the proceedings of these courts were ruled by gold. Large sums were paid by ladies for leave to marry, or still more frequently that they might not be forced to marry against their will; those who had money enough were allowed to compound for murders and other capital offences, but for those who had none there was no chance of escape.

The rigour of the Norman barons towards their vassals, and their licentious spirit, proved in the end favourable to general liberty, for the oppressed people looked up to the king for protection, and their support enabled the monarch to resist the encroachments of his nobles. The defects in the titles of some of the Norman kings, too, induced them to listen with more complaisance than they might otherwise have done to the complaints of their English subjects; and this again had the effect of rendering the

barons more indulgent to the people, for they saw the necessity of some relaxation, in order to strengthen their own hands, by making common cause with the people when they desired to retrench the prerogatives of the sovereign. The barons and the people united to obtain the great charter of liberty known in history as the Magna Charta, and by a long and vigorous struggle the English commonalty ultimately wrested from both king and nobles all the rights of which their Anglo-Saxon ancestors had been deprived.

Literature.—The conquest of England by the Normans greatly contributed to the revival of learning in England, as it brought it into closer connection with the Continent, where not long before a remarkable revival of letters had taken place.

Most of the scientific knowledge of the period was derived from the Greeks of the Eastern Empire, or the Arabs of Spain and Africa; and learning, such as it was, was almost wholly in the possession of the clergy, for even the nobility were rarely initiated into it. Schools and other seminaries nevertheless multiplied greatly, especially in the twelfth century, which is particularly distinguished by the institution of what are now called universities in Europe, though many of the establishments to which that name was now given had long existed as schools.

The literary and scientific knowledge studied during this period was divided into two branches; the first, or more elementary of which comprehended grammar, rhetoric, and logic; this was called the Trivium: the second comprehended music, arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy; this was the Quadrivium.

Theology also came to be ranked as a science during this, the age of St. Bernard, the last of the fathers, and of Peter Lombard, the first of the schoolmen; but classical studies did not extend beyond the Roman authors, and some of the most eminent of these were still unknown. Of Greek and Hebrew very little was known, though the latter, as well as Arabic, was taught in the schools of the Jews, that were established in many of the principal towns in England. To mathematical science but little attention was paid, but in the thirteenth century medicine and law were much cultivated.

The chief study of the period, however, was the imaginary science of astrology; and astrologers alone were honoured with the name of mathematicians. These supposed prognosticators of future events were in such favour, that most princes and noblemen in Europe kept one or more of them in his family, to cast the horoscopes of his children, and inform him of the probabilities of success in his designs. Some of the most famous of these astrologers published almanacs, containing predictions, like the well known Moore's Almanack of the present day. In most instances these

predictions were expressed in such vague and obscure language, that they might be explained to mean anything, and by becoming a little too plain and positive the astrologers eventually incurred disgrace and brought their art into contempt.

In the beginning of the year 1185 all agreed in declaring that, from an extraordinary conjunction of the planets in the sign Libra, which had never happened before, and would never occur again, there would arise, on the 16th of September, at three o'clock in the morning, a storm that would sweep away great towns and cities, and be followed by pestilence and wars and all the plagues that can afflict mankind. The Spanish Mahometan astrologers were not quite so alarming in their predictions, but merely announced a few shipwrecks and a partial failure in the vintage and harvest.

As the harvest drew near, Baldwin, Archbishop of Canterbury, commanded a solemn fast of three days to be observed over all his province. But, to the confusion of the astrologers, the 16th of September, when it came, was a calm fine day, and there was, an old writer observes, no other storm than what the archbishop raised in the church by his own turbulence.

Arts. — The Norman conquest exercised a favourable influence upon agriculture, as that event brought to England from the fertile plains of Flanders, Normandy, and France many thousands of husbandmen, who obtained estates and farms in the island, and employed in their cultivation the methods adopted in their native countries, which were superior to those of the Saxons.

Architecture also received great improvement, as the Normans were distinguished above almost every other nation by their taste for magnificent buildings.

Their success in England was immediately followed by the erection of splendid ecclesiastical edifices, as well as castles and fortresses. Churches rose in every village, and monasteries and cathedrals were built in a style of magnificence hitherto unknown. The twelfth century was more productive of works of a military class, though Henry I. was a great builder of both. In the turbulent reign of Stephen every man built himself a castle who could afford the outlay; and to the latter and more tranquil half of the century we are indebted for a large proportion of our fine ecclesiastical buildings. It was the architectural skill of the clergy, who alone studied these arts, which furnished in most cases the designs which wealth enabled them to carry into execution. Gundulph, Bishop of Rochester, is said to have been the finest architect of the day, in military as well as church architecture: and Peter of Colechurch, the architect of the first stone bridge built across the Thames at London (A. D. 1176) was an ecclesiastic.

Sculpture did not flourish during the Norman period. The

attempts in sculpture were few and imperfect, and the feeble artist seldom ventured to represent the human figure otherwise than in relief. Even in monumental sculpture the effigy was rarely introduced, and then in a rude style.

The higher departments of painting were scarcely cultivated at all during this period; decorative painting and gilding were used for ceilings, but it is from the illuminated manuscripts that the state of the art, as respects composition and drawing, can best be estimated. These manuscripts are remarkable for their profusion of ornament and graceful though intricate style of illuminating capital letters. The materials employed in this kind of painting were so durable, that the missals of that age still dazzle the eye with the brightness of their colours and the splendour of their gilding. Poetry, though cultivated to some extent, did not flourish during this period; but great attention was paid to church music by the clergy, some of whom composed pieces for the use of the choirs. Secular music was much improved by the Troubadours and minstrels, and from their increasing popularity during the twelfth century it probably made more progress than church music. The music of the English was grave and measured; and though they were acquainted, from their intercourse with the Continent, with several other instruments, they made little use of any but the organ. Popular minstrels played on the harp; and in Scotland, Wales, and Ireland it was almost the only instrument.

Commerce. — Commerce advanced rapidly during this period, and London, York, Bristol, Canterbury, Exeter, and many other towns grew rich by their attention to trade and navigation. Their exports were chiefly horses, wool, leather, cloth, corn, lead, tin, and sometimes slaves; their imports, gold, precious stones, silk, tapestry, furs, wines, and spices. A clause in Magna Charta endeavoured to secure the freedom of commerce by declaring that all merchants should have safety and security in going out and coming into England, and also in "staying and travelling in the kingdom, without any grevious impositions," except in time of war, when, if any merchants belonging to the hostile country should be found, they should be detained, though without injury to their property or persons, till it should be ascertained how English merchants who happened to be in the hostile country were treated. It was further declared that London and other cities and towns should enjoy their ancient privileges; that no fine should be imposed upon a merchant to the destruction of his merchandise; and that there should be a uniformity of weights and measures throughout the kingdom.

Little alteration was made by the Norman invaders in the coin used by the Anglo-Saxons. The coin most abundant was the silver

penny, the twelfth part of a shilling, which was sometimes denominated *esterling*, or sterling, from some German artists called Esterlings, who were employed in the coinage of it; and the word esterling, or sterling, came afterwards to signify good money in general.

Manners and Customs, &c.—The spirit of chivalry, first introduced into England by the Normans, gave a new turn to the education of the nobility and gentry. A youth designed for the profession of arms, and hoping to obtain the honour of knighthood, was, while yet a boy, placed under the care of some distinguished knight, in the quality of a page, to be instructed in martial exercises and the laws of courtesy and politeness; while he in return rendered to his lord the dutiful service of a son. Even knights of inferior rank, if they were renowned for their military accomplishments, had sometimes the sons of princes attending upon them. After the pupil in chivalry had spent a sufficient time in the station of a page, he was promoted to the rank of esquire; admitted to more familiar intercourse with knights and ladies; and perfected in dancing, riding, hawking, hunting, tilting, and other knightly accomplishments. The courts of kings, princes, and great barons were in fact colleges of chivalry, as the universities were of learning and the sciences; in both the youth proceeded through several degrees to the highest honours.

On the order of knighthood being conferred a solemn and imposing ceremony took place. The candidate passed several nights in prayer and watching in a church, and during this period of probation the sacraments of religion were administered to him. When the appointed day arrived the church was gorgeously decorated, and the young candidate for knighthood repaired to it, accompanied by his patron, kindred, and friends, in procession. His sword was blessed by the priest at the altar, and he then took the oaths of chivalry, swearing that he would be loyal to his sovereign, defend the church, and be the champion of all virtuous ladies. Afterwards his armour was put on, his sword girded to his side, and his spurs buckled on by warriors of noble rank or high-born ladies; and then the honour of knighthood was conferred by the patron from whom he was to receive it advancing and giving him the *accolade*, which consisted of three strokes with the flat of the sword upon his shoulder, exclaiming at the same time, "In the name of God, St. Michael, and St. George I make thee a knight. Be brave, hardy, and loyal."

The youth then leaped into the saddle of his war-horse; pranced a little up and down the church; and then, issuing forth, galloped to and fro, brandishing his weapons to display his strength, grace, and skill. He was then considered as a knight, and might from that time aspire to the highest offices and distinctions in the state.

Martial sports, called tournaments, were favourite diversions during this period. When a prince had resolved to hold a tournament he sent heralds to the neighbouring courts and countries to publish his design and invite all brave and loyal knights to honour the intended solemnity with their presence. Those who proposed to enter the lists hung up their shields in the cloisters of a neighbouring monastery, to be inspected both by knights and ladies; and if a lady touched it with a wand, it was considered as an accusation of its owner, who was thereupon brought before the judge of the tournament and tried with great solemnity; if found guilty of any conduct unworthy of a true and courteous knight he was expelled the assembly.

The tournament was held on an open level space surrounded by strong palings and scaffoldings, with seats for princes and princesses, lords and ladies, judges and marshals. The combatants were frequently conducted to the lists by their respective ladies in whose honour they were to fight; and throngs of heralds, Troubadours, and minstrels, in various picturesque dresses, heightened the animation and effect of the scene. In these martial exhibitions representations were given of all the various feats of war, from the single combat to the general action.

At the conclusion of each day's tournament the judges declared the victors and distributed the prizes, which were presented to the knights by the noblest and most beautiful ladies present. The victors were then conducted in triumph to the palace; their armour was taken off by the ladies of the court; they were dressed in the richest robes, and seated at the table of the sovereign, where they received every possible mark of distinction.

The Anglo-Normans took but two stated meals in the day, namely, dinner and supper. The time for dinner was nine in the morning, of supper five in the afternoon; and these early hours were thought to be conducive to health and longevity; an opinion expressed in the old doggrel lines: —

> "To rise at five, to dine at nine,
> To sup at five, to bed at nine,
> Makes a man live to ninety-nine."

The entertainments of kings and nobles at this time were often very sumptuous. John of Salisbury mentions being present at one which lasted from three o'clock in the afternoon till midnight, and at which were served up delicacies brought from Constantinople, Palestine, Phœnicia, Alexandria, and Babylon; of course at immense cost. Thomas à Becket is said to have given 5*l.* for a dish of eels; more than equivalent to three times as much of our present money.

Very few additions to or improvements in the stock of English household furniture appear to have been made by the Normans.

Salt-cellars are first mentioned in the reign of King John, when a mark of gold is ordered in the Close rolls to be furnished to make one for the king's use, and 29*s.* 6*d.* to be paid for a silver salt-cellar, gilt within and without. Fine cotton for three couches or beds for the king is also mentioned in these rolls; and linen sheets were used at the same period. This indicates some advance in refinement; but on the whole there was little progress either in the comfort or elegance of domestic furniture.

In dress there was, in the reign of Henry I., one great improvement, as it became a practice to cut the hair and shave the beard; a change that was effected principally by the clergy. Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, refused his benediction to those who would not cut their hair; and, at the end of a long sermon against the sinfulness of long locks and curling moustaches, razors and scissors were not only recommended, but actually produced for immediate operation.

The dress of the Anglo-Normans was both costly in material and extravagant in shape. In the illuminations the ladies appear with their sleeves wide and kerchiefs knotted up to prevent their trailing on the ground; but in the reign of Henry II. they seem to have adopted a somewhat more rational costume. The gentlemen of the period are represented in full and flowing robes of a moderate length, girt with richly ornamented waist-belts, with mantles fastened by fibulæ or brooches on the breast or shoulders, chausses, or long hose, shoes or boots, caps of various forms, and jewelled gloves.

Both Normans and Saxons were very superstitious. Their northern descent, their ancient traditions, their imperfect Christianity, the habits of a chivalrous life among the nobles, and the ignorance of the common people, led them to strew the path of their existence with omens, prodigies, and superstitious observances. The meeting of a hare in their path, of a woman with dishevelled locks, a blind man, a lame man, or a monk, was regarded as the omen of some calamity; while if a wolf crossed their path, if St. Martin's bird flew from left to right, if they heard distant thunder, or met a deformed or leprous man, some good fortune might be expected.

Among the sports and pastimes of the Anglo-Saxons hunting and hawking were the chief, both for ladies and gentlemen, and by the Great Charter every freeman was allowed to have in his woods eyries of hawks, eagles, and herons.

Horse-racing was practised among the Anglo-Normans, though only on a small scale; but gambling with dice was often carried to a pernicious excess, and violent quarrels arose out of it. A more innocent in-door amusement was furnished, however, by the jugglers and buffoons.

The peasantry found their recreation in archery, wrestling, running, leaping, sword and buckler playing, throwing spears, large stones, &c. In large towns the citizens diverted themselves with boar and bull baiting and the game of foot-ball; and in many parts of the country sports still in use among the peasantry on the eve of All-Hallows are derived from this remote period.

CHAP. IX.

THE PERIOD FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY III. TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF RICHARD II.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.
1216. Henry III.	Alexander II.	Philip Augustus (1180)	Frederic II. (1211).
1223. ...	...	Louis VIII.	...
1226. ...	...	Louis IX.	...
1249. ...	Alexander III.	...	...
1272. Edward I.	...	Philip the Bold	(*Interregnum.*)
1285. ...	Margaret	Philip the Fair	...
...	(*Interregnum*)	...	...
1307. Edward II.	John Baliol	...	Adolphus.
...	Robert Bruce	...	Albert I.
1314. ...	(1306)	Louis X.	Henry VII.
1316. ...	...	John I.	Louis IV.
1322. ...	...	Philip V.	...
1327. Edward III.	David II.	Charles IV.	...
1346. ...	...	Philip VI.	...
...	Robert II.	John the Good	Charles IV.
1377. Richard II.	...	Charles V.	...

HENRY III., SURNAMED OF WINCHESTER.

IMMEDIATELY after the burial of John the Earl of Pembroke, the marshal of England, marched with the royal army and Prince Henry, the deceased king's eldest son, to the city of Gloucester. On the day after their arrival (October 28.) Henry, who was only ten years old, was crowned in the Church of St. Peter by Gualo, the Pope's legate. There were no English bishops present but those of Winchester, Bath, and Worcester, and no lay nobles but the earls of Chester, Pembroke and Ferrers, with four barons. After his coronation Henry rendered homage to the Pope for Eng-

land and Ireland, and engaged to pay the tribute of 1000 marks a year, which his father had promised.

In the following month a great council was held at Bristol, in which the Earl of Pembroke was chosen protector, with the title of Rector Regis et Regni. At this council Magna Charta was carefully revised, with the view of satisfying the demands of the barons who adhered to Louis without sacrificing the royal prerogative.

These barons were very numerous, and Louis not only held London and the richest provinces of the south, but he was powerful also in the north and west. Louis when he heard of John's death was besieging Dover Castle; but he immediately raised the siege and returned to London, fancying that now all opposition would cease. He found, however, a powerful opponent in the Earl of Pembroke; and after the French had obtained some partial successes, they were attacked by him at Lincoln, and completely defeated. Louis sent for fresh troops and hoped to renew the war; but his fleet, while attempting to sail up the Thames, was destroyed by a smaller squadron under the brave Hubert de Burgh; and in September, 1217, he was compelled to leave England, though not without stipulating that the English nobles who had fought in his cause should not suffer for their conduct. This agreement the regent faithfully observed; but the Pope's legate dispossessed the clergy who had favoured the invaders, and bestowed their benefices upon his own adherents.

Under the wise government of the Earl of Pembroke the peace of the country was made every day more secure, and a confirmation of Magna Charta was granted by the young king, and its benefits extended to Ireland. A clause was added ordering the demolition of every castle built or rebuilt since the beginning of the war between John and his barons, and other clauses were withdrawn and formed into a separate charter, called the "Charter of Forests."

By this instrument forests enclosed since the reign of Henry II. were thrown open; offences in them, which had formerly been declared capital, were to be no longer so, and even the crime of killing the king's deer was to be punishable only by fine or imprisonment; so that these charters were brought nearly to the form in which they have remained to the present day.

During his regency the Earl of Pembroke was a worthy protector to the kingdom, and more than a father to the boy-king. Unfortunately he did not long fill the offices whose duties he had so admirably discharged, for he died in 1219, and was succeeded in his protectorship by Hubert de Burgh, while the young king's person was committed to the care of Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester.

Between these two a rivalry sprung up; which led to such continual plots and conspiracies, that the nation rejoiced when the Pope sent a mandate, directing that Henry, who in the meanwhile had been crowned a second time, should himself assume the government. Hitherto the barons had refused to deliver up the royal castles, pretending that they held them in trust for the young king till he should come of age. In the course of the year 1224 he succeeded in getting possession of most of them; but in many cases it was only by siege and assault. Some of the castles had been held by foreigners, who had committed frightful excesses in the country; and when these were captured, the garrisons, knights and all, were hanged. About this time Peter de Roches, who was a Poitevin by birth, gave up the struggle with Hubert de Burgh, and left England under pretence of making a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, and many of the foreign adventurers followed him.

In the year 1225, the king's revenue having been greatly diminished by the grants of preceding monarchs, it was found necessary to raise money by direct taxation. A Parliament, as it now began to be called, met at Westminster, and after much discussion granted a fifteenth of all moveable property for this purpose, though only on the express condition that the king should again ratify the two charters. Henry accordingly gave a ratification to Magna Charta for the third time, with another for the Charter of Forests, and sent orders to some of his officers, who had hitherto treated them with little respect, to enforce all their provisions. In the grant made to the king there were many exceptions favourable to the nobility, gentry, and clergy. In the following year the Pope, alleging that he was at war with the Emperor of Germany, made a demand on the clergy for a tenth of their possessions, and exacted it under threats of excommunication.

In the year 1224 Philip, King of France, died, and his death was shortly followed by that of his son and successor Louis. During his short reign, however, he had been called upon to fulfil an engagement that he had made with the Earl of Pembroke to restore Normandy, Maine, and Anjou to England; but when his succession to the throne enabled him to keep his agreement, he not only refused to do so, but marched a powerful army into Poitou, and partly by force, and partly by bribery, obtained possession of Rochelle and other towns, and extended his conquests to the right bank of the Garonne. Henry sent an army, nominally under the command of his brother Richard, to defend the province of Gascony; and the Pope then deemed it expedient to interfere in order to prevent Louis from obtaining too much the advantage of his opponent. A truce was agreed to for one year, and before the year had expired Louis died, leaving his son Louis IX. under the guardian-

ship of his mother, Blanche of Castile. Blanche was obnoxious to the French nobility, and a stormy period ensued in the affairs of the country, which promised no small advantage to hostile invaders. Henry therefore resolved to carry the war into France in 1229. Elated by the promises and invitations of the Barons of Guienne, Poitou, and Normandy, he set sail for the Continent; and on landing at St. Malo he was joined by a host of Bretons. He advanced to Nantes, but there wasted his time in feasts and pageantries, while the forces of the young French king were taking several towns. He came back to England in October covered with disgrace, and his ally, the Duke of Brittany, was compelled to appear at the foot of the throne of Louis with a rope round his neck.

The king and some of his favourites attempted to throw the blame of the failure on the brave Hubert de Burgh, but with little success, for the people attributed it to the king himself, and regarded him as a trifler and a coward. When he applied for money to his Parliament they refused it, and told him that his barons through his extravagance were as poor as himself.

In 1232 De Burgh, who had now been eight years at the head of public affairs, and to whose fidelity and courage Henry owed his crown, was doomed to experience the proverbial ingratitude of princes. Many circumstances combined to effect his downfall, but the most effectual was the envy of the nobles. In the midst of their plots against him his old rival Peter de Roches again reappeared at court, and Henry soon afterwards withdrew his favour from his long-tried friend. Some frivolous and foolish charges were brought against him, among others that of having gained the king's affections by magic and enchantment; and then, finding his enemies too powerful for him, Hubert fled, and took refuge in Merton Abbey. Shortly afterwards, desiring to see his wife, he ventured out on receiving a safe conduct from the king; but no sooner had he quitted his asylum than the faithless Henry sent 300 armed men to seize him. De Burgh escaped to a parish church in Essex, where, with a crucifix in one hand and the Host in the other, he stood firmly near the altar, hoping that the sanctity of the place would be his protection. But the king sent a troop of men to take him, who were not deterred by any such considerations. They dragged him forth, and sent for a smith to put him in irons; but the poor workman had a nobler spirit than Sir Godfrey de Crancumb, who headed the band; and he declared he would rather die than put fetters on the brave defender of Dover Castle and the conqueror of the French at sea. Hubert was conveyed to the Tower of London; but the bishops raised such an indignant outcry against this violation of a sanctuary, that the king was obliged to have his prisoner carried safely back to the parish church. He had the church surrounded, however, and

allowed no provisions to be carried in; so that De Burgh, to avoid starvation, was compelled to surrender. Henry was advised to put him to death; but to this he would not listen, though he seized all his estates, and imprisoned him in the castle of Devizes. Hubert made his escape and went into Wales, but was afterwards reconciled to the king and even received back his estates and honour; but he never again aspired to the dangerous post of chief minister and favourite.

On the first displacement and captivity of De Burgh his old enemy De Roches, the Bishop of Poitou, had been installed in his office; but he had soon rendered himself odious to all classes of the people by his constant endeavours to enrich and honour foreigners at the expense of the English. The national cause on this occasion was espoused by Edmund, the Archbishop of Canterbury, who even threatened the king with excommunication if he did not dismiss De Roches and his associates. Henry trembled, and obeyed; the foreigners were banished, and the archbishop, who was a patriot and a statesman, governed the country with skill and prudence.

In the year 1236 Henry was married to Eleanor, the daughter of the Count of Provence; and when she came to England she was followed by a numerous retinue and a swarm of foreigners, and the favour the king showed them involved him during a period of twenty years in continual disputes with his barons. Eleanor and the foreigners who formed her court persuaded him to frequent violations of the Great Charter, the principles of which he hated, notwithstanding his repeated ratifications of it. But when he wanted money he had never any objection to ratify it over again; which he did in 1244 and 1253, taking an oath as a man, a Christian, a knight, and a king, that he would keep the charters inviolate, and again breaking the oath whenever he found it convenient to do so.

To this just cause of offence to the nation was added that of his unsuccessful expedition to the Continent. In 1242 he had engaged in a war with Louis, King of France, and in 1253 he had embarked in a rash project to raise one of his sons to the throne of the Two Sicilies; but in both these undertakings he had failed disgracefully. To raise the means for them he had had recourse to oppressive exactions and to borrowing money; but whatever sums were obtained were soon squandered away, and at the termination of the Sicilian expedition Henry was a complete bankrupt. The Pope brought a claim against him for 100,000*l.* and as he was a creditor who could enforce payment by excommunication, interdict, and dethronement, Henry endeavoured to meet it by levying enormous contributions on the churches of England and

Ireland; but these proceedings made the clergy as hostile to him as were the lay barons. When called upon to take up some of the Pope's bills, some of the prelates boldly refused, and threatened to exchange their mitres for helmets. A scarcity of provisions in 1258 brought matters to a crisis. In the month of May a Parliament was called to meet at Westminster, and when the king made his entrance, the barons, who were all in complete armour, made a rattling sound with their swords. The king glanced timidly around him, and asked whether he was a prisoner. "Not so," said Roger Bigod; "but your foreign favourites and your own extravagance have involved the realm in much wretchedness, wherefore we demand that the powers of government be entrusted and made over to a committee of bishops and barons, that the same may root up abuses and enact good laws." Henry felt his helplessness and foresaw his danger, so, yielding to the storm, he assured his barons, who were headed by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, that he was ready to give them all possible satisfaction. It was then settled that a Parliament should meet at Oxford, to digest a new plan of government, and elect persons who were to be entrusted with the chief authority.

The Parliament, called by the king's party the Mad Parliament, met accordingly on the 11th of June, the barons coming in armour; and without a murmur from Henry a committee of government was appointed. It consisted of twenty-four members, twelve to be chosen by the barons, and twelve by the king; and at the head of this supreme council was the Earl of Leicester; to the maintenance of whose ordinances Henry, and afterwards his son Edward, took a solemn oath. In the hands of this council the executive government underwent a complete change; all the former officers were displaced, and adherents of the barons put in their places; by whom also all vacancies were filled as they occurred. Finally, the whole authority of government was lodged in a council of twelve persons, appointed by the barons, and an oligarchy was on the point of being established; but the barons soon disagreed among themselves, and were opposed by the knights of the shire or counties, who complained that they had not really effected any reform. By degrees the council became split into two factions, one headed by the Earl of Gloucester, and the other by the Earl of Leicester: and there were continually fresh breaches occurring between them, as well as between the barons generally and the court.

At length, in the year 1262, Henry, who had long rejoiced at the divisions among the barons, resolved to emancipate himself from their authority; and having obtained a papal dispensation from the oaths he had taken at Oxford, he told the committee of government that he should henceforth govern without them.

He then shut himself up in the Tower of London; and from

behind its strong walls he ordered the citizens of London to close their gates and swear fresh fealty to him.

At this time Prince Edward was in France; and it was agreed by both parties to suspend their disputes till his arrival. When he did arrive, however, he joined the barons; but the cause of the king prevailed for the time nevertheless, and the Earl of Leicester had to take refuge in France. The next year there was another change in the state of parties; Prince Edward went back to his father, and the Earl of Gloucester having died, his son, who succeeded him, instead of the rival, became the bosom friend of Leicester, who now returned to England, and, raising his banner of war, marched upon London, where he was joined by the mayor and the common people. Prince Edward fled to Windsor Castle; and the king remained in safety in the Tower till a temporary reconciliation took place.

This was in the month of July; and by the month of October the king and the barons were once more in arms against each other, and the sword was not again to be sheathed till one or the other of the parties had prevailed.

The opening of the campaign in 1264 was in favour of the royalists; but the fortune of war changed when they marched to the southern coast.

The two armies met at Lewes; and after a hard-fought battle Henry was completely defeated, and with his son Edward and many of his nobles was taken prisoners by Leicester. The king and the young prince were first confined in Dover Castle; but early in 1265 they were, by order of a Parliament summoned to consider their case, removed from thence, and restored in a great measure to personal liberty. This Parliament, it is worth remembering, was the first in which representatives from the cities and boroughs appeared.

The Earl of Gloucester, whose friendship for the Earl of Leicester was now at an end, formed, in conjunction with the Earl of Derby, a plan for Prince Edward's escape. The plan was successful; and the prince fled on a swift horse to Ludlow, where the royal banner was raised.

Meanwhile the Earl of Leicester, with the feeble king in his possession, remained at Hereford, and his eldest son, Simon de Montford, kept the field in Sussex. To prevent the junction of these forces and keep the earl on the right bank of the Severn were the immediate objects of Prince Edward. In the latter he failed, as the earl crossed the river and encamped near Worcester; but he surprised the son, Simon de Montford, by night near Kenilworth, and defeated him with great loss. On the earl's advancing to Evesham he found himself surrounded by the victors, with whom he

fought a terrible battle, in which he lost all. His friends fell in heaps around him, and at last the great earl himself was slain, with his sword still in his grasp. The victors executed barbarous vengeance on him; they mutilated his body in a brutal and disgusting manner, and presented it in that state to the wife of Lord Roger Mortimer, one of the earl's most deadly enemies.

At the commencement of this battle the king was in the earl's camp, in complete armour, and mounted on a war-horse. In one of the charges he was dismounted, and in eminent danger of being killed; but on his crying out that he was Henry of Winchester, Prince Edward, who happened to be within hearing, came to his rescue, and carried him out of the mêlée. After this battle he resumed ostensibly his royal dignity, and summoned a Parliament to meet at Winchester.

This Parliament would not consent to have any part of Magna Charta revoked; but it passed some severe sentences against the family and partisans of the late Earl of Leicester, as well as against the citizens of London.

Both citizens and nobles, and finally even the Earl of Gloucester, revolted, and then a more moderate course was adopted: an edict was promulgated in 1266, by which the vanquished party was subjected only to fines, instead of to confiscation and personal punishment. Gradually the kingdom settled into a more peaceable state; and in 1269 the king consented to pass several popular laws and once more to confirm Magna Charta.

In the year 1270 Prince Edward, seeing the country in tranquillity, assumed the Cross, and went on an expedition to Palestine, followed by nearly a hundred English barons and knights. Many of these lost their lives in the Crusade, and left their bones to bleach on the Syrian shore: Edward himself narrowly escaped the dagger of an assassin. This man had gained admission to his presence under the pretence that the Emir of Joppa, whose messenger he was, was desirous of becoming a Christian; and when Edward took the dispatch he brought and began to read, he suddenly struck at his heart. He missed his deadly aim, and the prince, grappling with his assailant, flung him on the ground and killed him with his own weapon, though not without having received a dangerous wound. He recovered, however; and it is supposed that he was partly indebted for his recovery to the affectionate attendance of his wife Eleanor, but there does not seem to be any good authority for the old story of her having sucked poison from the wound.

Edward performed some valiant exploits in the Holy Land, and took Acre with a small force; but his remaining in Palestine would have been of little use, and after making an agreement with the Sultan that the Christians left there should not be molested for

ten years, he returned homewards. While in Italy he received intelligence of the death of his father, who had expired at Westminster November 16th, 1272, having lived sixty-eight years, during fifty-six of which he had been king.

The inglorious character of this long reign is in a great measure to be attributed to the king's own want of prudence and principle; and though he was desirous of peace, his want of good faith towards his barons led to cruel internal contests, most pernicious to the welfare of the country. Yet, notwithstanding all the evils of his rule, England did improve, and even acquire strength. Commerce was extended, and domestic industry stimulated, and both citizens and peasants made advances in civilisation and refinement. But this progress must not be ascribed to Henry's talents as a ruler; on the contrary, it sometimes rather originated in his mismanagement and careless profusion, for the demands he made on the country for money led to increased commerce, and thus unforeseen good arose out of evil.

Henry was little fitted by nature for the position he was called on to occupy, and what virtues he had would have been more in their places in a convent than on a throne. His piety was probably sincere, though unenlightened and alloyed by the full amount of superstition common to his age. It has been sometimes mentioned by modern writers as an instance of this, that he once summoned all the great and learned men of his kingdom to hear of a sacred benefit lately conferred upon England in the shape of a phial containing a small quantity of the blood shed by the Redeemer on the Mount of Calvary; and his having carried it in procession to Westminster Abbey, through a deep miry road, without ever taking his eyes from the casket containing it.

Henry had probably no suspicion of the fraudulent character of the relic, but under his supposition of its being genuine his conduct is excusable.

Before the royal corpse was lowered into the grave the barons present laid their bare hands upon it and swore fealty to the absent Edward, who was proclaimed at the Temple as King of England, Lord of Ireland, and Duke of Aquitaine.

EDWARD I., SURNAMED LONGSHANKS.

Edward expressed much sorrow for the death of his father, but having no anxiety to return to England, spent his time between Rome, Paris, and Guienne till the year 1274. While he was at Guienne he received from the Count of Chalons a challenge to meet him lance to lance at a tournament; a challenge which Edward as a true knight considered himself bound in honour to

accept, though there was some rumour of bad faith on the part of the challenger. Edward was attended by a thousand champions; but the Count of Chalons rode to the spot with nearly two thousand. On their meeting, the image of war was soon converted into its stern reality, for a sanguinary battle took place, in which the common men fought as well as the knights. The English cross-bow men drove the French infantry from the field, and then, mixing with the English horse, overthrew many of the count's knights by stabbing their horses or cutting their saddle-girths. Edward himself had a fierce struggle with the count, who was renowned for his personal strength; but he was nevertheless hurled by the English king from his saddle with a dreadful shock, and when raised from the ground by some of his knights he cried out for quarter. Edward, however, was so enraged, that he kept hammering on the iron armour of his suppliant foe for some time, and at last made him give up his sword to a common soldier; a disgrace in the opinion of the age to which no true knight would have submitted.

The English were victorious in this "Little War of Chalons," as it was called; many knights were obliged to ransom their persons, their arms, and their horses, while great numbers of the French foot soldiers were slain; for, says the chronicler, "they were but rascals, and no great account was made of them."

Edward now resolved to return to England, and accordingly landed at Dover on the 2nd of August, 1274; and on the 19th of the same month he was crowned, with his wife Eleanor, in Westminster Abbey. On their entrance into London they were received, says Holinshed, "with all the joy that might be devised. The streets were hung with rich cloths of silk arras and tapestry, the aldermen and burgesses threw handfuls of gold and silver from the windows, and the conduits ran plentifully with white and red wine, that each creature might drink his fill."

If the citizens of London were rich, however, the government was poor and embarrassed, and the consequences of this embarrassment fell chiefly on the Jews, towards whom Edward exhibited even more than the customary cruelty. The rest of the nation was in a great measure protected from spoliation by the Great Charter and the power of the Parliament; but the Jews were left entirely defenceless, no hand or tongue was raised to protect them from the grossest ill usage and oppression, and the mass of the people even rejoiced in their ruin. The crime of clipping and adulterating the coinage was laid to their charge, and although the practice had for many years been so common that clipped money might have been found upon every person in the kingdom, the Jews were severely punished when any was found in their possession. Hundreds of the Jews of both sexes were hung, and the houses and entire

property of all who thus suffered were seized on as booty by the crown. The religious antipathies of Edward served as a convenient sanction for his rapacity. As a zealous Crusader he naturally detested all unbelievers, and he committed upon the Jews in England the same wrongs perpetrated by the Mahometans on the Christians in Palestine. Thus he put a capitation or poll-tax upon them, and compelled them to wear a distinctive and odious badge upon their dress; in both of which customs he imitated the Saracens.

Throughout his whole reign the Jews were made the special objects of ill-treatment, and the example of the king was readily followed by the whole nation.

In the year 1290 he issued a proclamation commanding all Jews to quit the kingdom within two months under penalty of death, and 16,511 of these persecuted people received the king's pass, with the prohibition from carrying any more of their money with them than would serve to pay the expenses of their voyage. Even in this destitute condition few of them were allowed to reach the end of their voyage, for the English sailors thought it no sin to be as rapacious as the king, and they robbed the poor Jews of the little they had, and in many cases drowned them afterwards. The houses of the exiles, with their lands and merchandise and the debts due to them were all seized by the king.

While he was thus persecuting the Jews Edward passed some wise laws for his Christian subjects, and took measures to repress the disorders which his father had permitted to arise, and to enforce the administration of justice. His ruling passion, however, was the desire of conquest, and his first object was now the subjugation of Wales. After two invasions, one in 1277, the other three years afterwards, that country was conquered; Llewellyn, the Welsh king, was killed in a skirmish, and David his brother, the last sovereign prince of one of the most ancient ruling families in Europe, was put to death, because it was said "he was a traitor to the king, who had made him a knight." While Edward was in Wales Queen Eleanor bore him a son, and Edward availed himself of this event to present the infant to the people as their countryman, and to tell them that he who was born among them should be their prince. Since that time the eldest son of the King of England has always been called Prince of Wales.

After the subjugation of Wales Edward passed three years on the Continent, where he was required to act as umpire in a dispute that had arisen between the kings of France and Arragon and the House of Anjou respecting the island of Sicily: but his own kingdom in the meantime fell into disorder, and the Parliament refused to supply him with money till he returned. When he did return in 1289 he found much that required his attention;

among other things, that all the judges except two had been guilty of receiving bribes; and the king now made large profits himself by the fines he inflicted on the delinquents. Another plan that he adopted to replenish his treasury was to institute an inquiry into the titles of all landholders. Those whose rights were not clearly made out were compelled to buy from the king a confirmation of their titles; but this unpopular course was checked by Earl Warren, who, on being required to show his title to his lands, drew his sword, and, pointing to it, said that by that his ancestors had won the land, and by that he would keep it. After this Edward prudently stopped all further inquiries.

In the year 1290 the crown of Scotland was disputed by several competitors. The heiress of Alexander III. was his granddaughter Margaret, Queen of Norway, who was but eight years old; and she died at the Orkneys on her voyage to Scotland; and thus the plan Edward had formed for a union between the two kingdoms by means of the marriage of his son and this infant princess was frustrated, and he resolved to effect the union by the sword. Circumstances favoured his views, for there were no fewer than thirteen candidates for the vacant throne, though only three, Baliol, Robert Bruce, and Hastings, had claims that required consideration.

Between these three claimants Edward was requested to decide, and ostensibly for this purpose he advanced with an army to the Borders. Several conferences took place between him and the Scottish barons, and a commission was appointed to investigate the matter and make a report to Edward, who did not give in his final decision till 1292; and then it was, that he ought to have the crown himself, and "would not relinquish his right of property in it as claimable hereafter," but that in the meanwhile he would appoint John Baliol to reign in his stead. Baliol, to obtain the kingdom, consented to hold it on this condition, and did homage for it to the English monarch on the 26th of December following. He soon found that he was a king only in name; and he was repeatedly called on to appear in the English courts of law and to answer as defendant in all sorts of causes. At the commencement of this rough usage Baliol bore it with submission; but on a war breaking out between England and France, when Philip seized on Guienne, Baliol made an effort to throw off Edward's yoke. He signed (in 1295) a treaty to assist Philip with his whole power, and in the spring of the following year he invaded Cumberland, and laid waste the English country as far as Carlisle. But no force the Scots could bring into the field was sufficient to withstand the army with which Edward now appeared on their borders. He overthrew them in several engagements, and by the month of August had made himself master of the whole kingdom,

After this Edward took every precaution to secure his title and to abolish the distinctions likely to foster a spirit of independence and national pride, and he then carried John Baliol as a prisoner to London. After this Edward determined to attack France, and was in 1297 embarking for this purpose when he received intelligence of a revolt in Scotland, which was headed by the renowned William Wallace. The task of suppressing it, however, he left to John de Warenne, the then governor of Scotland; but he proved unequal to the task, and the independence of Scotland was recovered by the valour and energy of William Wallace more quickly than it had been lost.

The war with the French king detained Edward till 1298; but when he returned he commanded that a general muster of the military force of the kingdom should take place at York on the Feast of Pentecost. More than 100,000 warriors met him; and from this place he advanced into Scotland. He came up with the Scottish army as it lay encamped near Falkirk, and a great battle was fought, in which Wallace was defeated. Fifteen thousand of the Scots are said to have fallen on that fatal day; and Wallace with the remnant of his army retired to Stirling, but was driven thence by the English; and the victorious invaders carried fire and sword through the country in all directions.

By the middle of September Edward had regained possession of all the principal places of strength in the south of Scotland, but the country north of the Forth was still unsubdued; Edward, however, was obliged to leave the country, from the impossibility of finding sustenance for his troops.

These wars in Wales, Scotland, and Guienne had been very expensive, and had been paid for by most oppressive taxes on all classes of the English people, in the raising of which the great constitutional charter had been frequently infringed. This infringement called forth resistance from both clergy and nobles; but Edward bore down their opposition by a solemn promise that, when the war was over he would make them amends for the past. After the battle of Falkirk the barons claimed the fulfilment of this promise, but Edward endeavoured to gain time; and when they persisted, he retired from London on the plea of its not agreeing with his health: but the barons would not be thus evaded; they followed him, and he at last granted the ratification of the Great Charter. But still Edward considered his concession as a temporary sacrifice of his high prerogative; and from the moment he made it, he employed himself in devising measures to overthrow the power of Parliament.

Edward's campaign in Flanders had been unfortunate; but the French king did not long enjoy his triumph, for in the year 1302

the burghers of Ghent, Lille, Bruges, and other free cities defeated his armies, and then elected John of Namur to be their governor-general. Edward wished to get back Guienne as much as Philip longed to recover Flanders; and but for the Pope's mediation, war would have been renewed between them. At the pontiff's suggestion Edward, who had been for some years a widower, married Margaret, the sister of Philip, while his eldest son, the Prince of Wales, was privately betrothed by proxy to Isabella, the daughter of the French king. The double marriage was accompanied by a treaty of commerce between the two countries, by which Edward recovered Guienne, and the Flemings were then given up to Philip, who avenged his recent defeat by a frightful massacre of the burghers and peasants; but he was at last compelled to treat with them on terms by which they preserved all their ancient liberties.

After the defeat of Wallace at Falkirk John Comyn was appointed regent in his stead, and a desultory warfare was continued between the Scots and English. By the termination of his dispute with France Edward was left free to turn with his whole power to the Scottish war, and early in 1304 Comyn and other noblemen made their submission to him at Strathorde in Fifeshire. Wallace fled to the woods and marshes, supporting himself as best he might; but in the following year, probably through the treachery of a trusted friend, he was taken prisoner, and executed with many circumstances of cruelty at "the Elms in Smithfield." Baliol was now dead, and Robert Bruce, the son of the original claimant of that name, resolved on making an attempt to obtain the kingdom. He confided his plan to Comyn, by whom it was betrayed to Edward; and Bruce, who was then in England, had to fly precipitately.

In a Franciscan monastery in Dumfries he again met Comyn, and killed him in the church before the altar. Bruce then collected his followers, and had himself crowned; but the power of Edward was too much for him, his troops were dispersed, and he was obliged to make his escape secretly. Early in 1307, however, he was again at the head of an army, and made a successful attack upon the English at Carrick. On hearing this Edward made a vow, with all the solemnities of chivalry, that he would exterminate the Scottish *rebels*, as he called them; and being then seriously ill, he charged his nobles, in case of his death, to keep his body unburied till his vow was accomplished. He then proceeded towards the north in a horse-litter, but on arriving at Carlisle and feeling rather better, he mounted his war-horse.

Nature, however, was exhausted, and he died at a place called Burgh-upon-the-Sands, a few miles from Carlisle, in the sixty-ninth year of his age: and his last breath was spent in enjoining his son

and his nobles to prosecute one of the great designs of his life, the conquest of Scotland.

Edward had in the course of his reign been instrumental in promoting English liberty, and had conferred various benefits on his English subjects; but these benefits were rather reluctantly conceded than freely bestowed. He was induced to grant those privileges that do honour to his reign for the sake of obtaining the means of gratifying his ungodly passion for military glory.

One of these privileges was an extension of parliamentary power to the Commons in the year 1295, when representatives were summoned from 124 cities and boroughs. Several laws were also passed respecting landed property, which ultimately did much to weaken the feudal tenures and lessen the power of the nobility, while the ambition of Edward was the means of greatly adding to the solid interests of the kingdom.

EDWARD II., SURNAMED OF CAERNARVON.

Edward II. was peacefully recognised by the unanimous consent of the nobles present with the army on the day of his father's death. This young prince was popular with the nation, but he had already betrayed weaknesses that might overthrow the strongest throne. He had been surrounded by favourites and parasites of the basest character; and one of them, named Piers Gaveston, had already been driven from England by his father. On his deathbed Edward had charged him, under pain of his curse, not to recall this minion, but immediately on his accession the young monarch sent for Gaveston back, and conferred upon him the earldom of Cornwall, with other honours and immense estates. At the same time, though he made a semblance of prosecuting the war in Scotland, he took no steps to check the progress of Bruce, but merely marched as far north as Cumnoch on the borders of Ayrshire, whence he made his way back to England.

Gaveston had joined Edward before he left Scotland, and no sooner had he made his appearance than the whole body of the government was changed. The chancellor, the barons of the Exchequer, the judges, and all the officers appointed by the late king were deprived of their places. Some, including the lord treasurer Walton de Langton, Bishop of Lichfield, were even thrown into prison. The new king seemed careless about offending and disgusting every one else, provided he could only please, enrich, and aggrandise his minion, whom he now made lord chamberlain, besides marrying him to his niece and bestowing on him extensive estates both in England and Guienne.

In the year 1308, when Edward himself went to France in order

to marry Isabella, to whom he had been affianced by his father, he appointed Gaveston to be regent during his absence, and when he returned he threw himself into the arms of his favourite, kissed him, and called him brother. At the coronation, which was celebrated soon afterwards with great magnificence, all the honours were conferred upon Gaveston, and no notice taken of the hereditary rights of the great nobles.

All this tended to inflate Gaveston's mind with pride and insolence, while it naturally excited the anger of the barons. Only four days after the coronation they requested Edward to banish his favourite, and the request was made in such terms, that he did not venture to refuse it. Gaveston left England, taking an oath never to return, and the bishops threatened to excommunicate him if he did. Edward employed every expedient to mitigate the animosity of the barons; and when he fancied he had succeeded, he sent for Gaveston back again. On his return the affected humility of his deportment gained him friends, and he even obtained from Parliament a formal consent to his remaining in England; but his insolence and arrogance soon showed themselves again. It was his custom to indulge in rude witticisms at the expense of the English nobles: the Earl of Lancaster he called the "Old Hog;" the Earl of Pembroke, who was tall and pale, "Joseph the Jew;" and the Earl of Warwick the "Black Dog." On hearing this the Earl said he would one day make him feel the Black Dog's teeth. That day soon arrived.

In the year 1311 Edward was in great difficulties for money, and the barons, who met at Westminster in arms, instead of complying with his demands, recalled all grants made by him to his favourite, and decreed that all made hereafter without the consent of Parliament should be null and void; that Gaveston should be again banished, never to return under pain of death; that the king should not leave the kingdom or levy war without their consent; that, in case of his absence, the barons should have the power to appoint a regent; and that all the great officers of the crown and the governors of foreign possessions should at all times be chosen by the barons, or with their advice and consent.

To all these ordinances, however distasteful to him, the king was compelled to affix his signature, and Gaveston retired to Flanders; but in less than two months, when Edward was at York, whither he had retired in the hope of collecting an army to support him, there was Gaveston with him again. The barons pursued them, and fell suddenly on the royal party at Newcastle; whereupon Edward made his escape into a ship, and sailed away with his favourite, leaving his wife in the hands of the barons. Gaveston got to Scarborough Castle, and threw himself into it; but that fortress

was not tenable, and in the spring of 1312 he surrendered to "Joseph the Jew," who pledged his faith that no harm should happen to him, but that he should be confined in his own castle at Wallingford. On the following morning, however, Gaveston found himself transferred into the hands of the "Black Dog of Ardenne," who carried him in triumph to Warwick Castle. There a council composed of the Earls of Lancaster, Hereford, and Arundel was hastily got together to consider what should be done with the prisoner, and it was resolved that, in conformity with the recent ordinance of Parliament, he should be put to death. This was accordingly done, though he threw himself at the feet of the "Old Hog," calling him now "Gentle Lord." He was beheaded by a Welsh executioner at Blacklock Hill, about two miles from Warwick.

This tragedy threw the king into an agony of grief, but he soon dried his tears and began to think of revenge. For six months he and his barons were in arms against each other, but no battle took place between them, and in 1313 a reconciliation was effected. The barons knelt before the king in Westminster Hall, amnesties were published, and the plate and jewels of the deceased favourite surrendered to Edward. When he was required, however, to declare Gaveston a traitor, he resolutely refused.

Edward now took the field against the Scots in apparent earnest. He summoned not only all the military power of England, but many of the Irish chiefs also, to meet him at Berwick on the 11th of June; and more than 100,000 men, including a body of 40,000 cavalry, assembled at that place of rendezvous.

At the head of this army Edward proceeded to Scotland, advancing by the eastern coast to Edinburgh. Thence he turned to the west, proceeding along the right bank of the Forth, towards Stirling. Bruce with his army, amounting to about 40,000 men, was posted at Bannockburn, a little to the south of Stirling; and here a battle took place, in which Bruce was completely victorious, more than 30,000 of the English forces being killed, and others taken prisoners. In 1319 Edward made another attempt on Scotland, but again failed; and on the 21st of December the two nations concluded a truce which it was hoped might lead to a permanent peace.

Edward's imprudent conduct soon brought on another quarrel with his barons. After the death of Gaveston he had conceived the same unbounded affection for Hugh Despencer, a young man who had been first brought to court by the Earl of Lancaster. The new favourite was of a noble English family, attractive in his manners, and personally accomplished, and his father was a man who had been respected through life for wisdom, valour, and in-

tegrity. Both the father and the son were loaded with honours by the king, and had large estates bestowed upon them; and the anger of the barons was excited by finding that all avenues to favour and promotion were stopped by the Despencers.

The Earl of Lancaster, who was a prince of the blood, considered the promotion of his dependant as an insult to him, and being joined by thirty-four barons and knights and a host of retainers, marched upon London. At a Parliament assembled at Westminster the armed barons pronounced a sentence of banishment against the new favourites, and the king was frightened into confirming the sentence.

The relative positions of the contending parties was, however, soon reversed, for in two months the Despencers returned, and the king by a bold manœuvre took and hanged twelve knights of the opposite party.

The Earl of Lancaster now retired into the north, and opened a correspondence with the Scots, who promised to send an army across the borders to his assistance; but this sealed his fate, for his application to the Scots excited vehement anger against him in the minds of the English. In the year 1322 he was defeated at a battle fought at Boroughbridge, and taken prisoner with many other barons; he was then tried and condemned by a court martial, and suffered death by beheading, on an eminence near Pomfret.

After this victory the king got the attainders of the Despencers reversed, created the father Earl of Winchester, and lavished the estates of the captured barons on both father and son.

The victory of Bannockburn gained by the Scots in 1313 had laid the northern counties open to their ravages, and for several successive years they made destructive incursions into those counties, and swept the country as far as the walls of York. In 1323 Edward wisely put an end to this war, by concluding with Bruce a truce of thirteen years, and which was not to be interrupted by the death of one or both of the contracting parties. By this treaty the independence of Scotland was virtually recognised, and this the English regarded as a disgrace to them.

The Despencers soon found a formidable foe in Queen Isabella, who asserted that they had seized her dower and kept her in a state of abject poverty and dependence, besides sowing discord between her and her husband. These accusations she made after she had gone to France, whither she had persuaded her husband to send her, ostensibly that she might mediate in some differences that had arisen with her brother Charles le Bel.

There was at this time residing at Paris a certain Roger de Mortimer, who had been one of the prisoners taken at Boroughbridge, but who had recently escaped. It soon became notorious

that there was a guilty connection between Isabella and him; and when Charles vowed to redress his sister's wrongs, the Pope interfered, and threatened to excommunicate him if he did not send Isabella back to her husband. Charles then gave Isabella to understand that she must depart his kingdom, or he would drive her out; but it is supposed his anger was partly feigned, for by his connivance the court of Hainault gave shelter to her and the Lancastrian party. Here Isabella contrived to raise an army, with which in 1325 she embarked and landed on the coast of Suffolk. She was immediately joined by bishops, barons, and great numbers of the people, and Edward soon discovered that his wife, his son, his relatives, and his subjects were all arrayed against him. He appealed to the citizens of London; but they declined fighting for him, saying their privileges excused them. Abandoned by all but the Chancellor Baldock, a few retainers, and the two Despencers, Edward sought safety in flight, and endeavoured to find an asylum amongst the Welsh; but they rejected the fugitive, and he was obliged to put to sea with the younger Despencer. The elder threw himself into Bristol; but on the queen's approach the citizens rose against him, and he was put to death, at the age of ninety, with all the tortures inflicted at that time upon traitors. The king, after tossing about many days on a tempestuous sea, was driven on the coast of South Wales, and forced to land. He concealed himself for some weeks in the mountains of Glamorganshire; but at last Despencer and Baldock were betrayed by the peasants for gold, and Edward surrendered to his cousin, the brother of the Earl of Lancaster, whom he had just put to death at Pontefract. Edward was sent as a prisoner to Kenilworth, and Despencer was taken to Hereford, where he was "drawn, hanged, embowelled, beheaded, and quartered." Baldock, who, as a priest, was secure from the scaffold and the gallows, died a prisoner in Newgate.

At Kenilworth Castle Edward was induced, partly by threats, and partly by promises, to resign the crown to his son; and young Edward, although only in his fourteenth year, was crowned at Westminster, on the 29th of January, 1327, by the Archbishop of Canterbury, the government remaining in the hands of the queen and her partisans.

The Earl of Lancaster, though he had the death of a brother to avenge, proved less cruel than his colleagues, or even than Queen Isabella. The miseries of the imprisoned king touched his heart, and he treated him with mildness and generosity. On hearing this, the queen had her unfortunate husband taken out of the hands of Lancaster and given to the keeping of Sir John Maltravers, a man of fiercer disposition, and who had suffered cruel wrongs from Edward and his favourites.

Maltravers hurried the deposed king from place to place, and at length conducted him to Berkeley Castle, the owner of which, Lord Berkeley, was associated with him in the guardianship. The captive, however, was treated by Lord Berkeley, too, with more favour than was desired; and one day while he was absent "at his manor of Bradley," Edward was, by command of Mortimer, given over to the keeping of two men named Thomas Gourney and William Ogle. These men were his murderers. On a dark night, towards the end of September, shrieks of anguish were heard to issue from the walls of Berkeley Castle; and "many being awakened therewith from their sleep, prayed heartily to God to receive his soul, for they understood by those cries what the matter meant."

In the morning the gates of the castle were thrown open, and the people were admitted to view the body of Edward of Caernarvon, who was said to have expired suddenly in the night.

The body, it is said, bore no outward marks of violence, but "the face was distorted and horrible to look on."

The remains were privately buried in the Abbey Church of Gloucester, and it was soon rumoured that the king had been murdered by Gourney and Ogle in a peculiarly horrible manner; namely, by thrusting a red-hot iron into his bowels: but not even this atrocity could rouse in the minds of the nation any sympathy for this wretched man, who was only forty-three years old at the period of his death, though he had worn his dishonoured crown for nineteen years.

EDWARD III.

When by the deposition of his father this prince had been raised to the throne a regency of twelve persons had been appointed to carry on the government. But though Edward was considered too young for political duties, he was permitted to go to war.

The Scotch were anxious for revenge for all they had suffered from the ambition of the English kings; and now that they saw a favourable opportunity for breaking the existing treaty of peace, they had not much scruple about doing so now, when the true king of England "was in prison, and his throne occupied by a boy." Summoning his vassals from all parts, Bruce collected an army of 25,000 men, and placed them under the command of James Douglas and Randolph, Earl of Murray.

This force invaded England, and advanced as far as York without meeting with any resistance.

On the rumour of the invasion, however, 60,000 horse and

foot collected round the standard of young Edward; and on his arrival at York the Scots retired, and by the celerity of their movements reached their own country in safety.

The English army crossed the Tyne in pursuit of them, and discovered the position of the invaders; but the two armies remained many days near each other, and finally the Scots decamped with a large amount of booty that they had collected in England.

This war was, however, soon followed by a definitive treaty of peace. About the festival of Whitsuntide, 1328, Parliament met at Northampton, and there concluded a treaty, which recognised the complete independence of Scotland.

In the following year the great Robert Bruce died, and was succeeded by his son David; who, by one of the articles of the agreement, was to marry the Princess Joanna, a sister of King Edward.

Queen Isabella during her residence at Hainault had contracted her son Edward to Philippa of Hainault, who was now brought over to England with great pomp; and on the 24th of January, 1328, the marriage ceremonies were completed at York. At this time Edward was only sixteen years of age, though much esteemed for his chivalrous deportment and popular manners.

The kingdom at this time was not really governed either by the king or the regents, but by Mortimer and Queen Isabella; and it was through their "evil and naughty counsel" that a dishonourable peace — or what was thought so by the people at large — was now concluded with the Scots. The position Mortimer occupied exposed him to much envy, yet he continued to grasp at fresh power and honours. He and the queen-mother ruled after the young king's marriage more absolutely than before; and Mortimer incurred great popular odium by ordering an immense quantity of provisions to be purchased at the king's price, and in the name of the queen, "to the sore oppression of the people."

The Earl of Lancaster made an attempt to put down the favourite by force of arms; but at Winchester he was obliged to retreat, and Mortimer fell on his estates and plundered them, as though he were in a foreign country. The earl was obliged to sue for pardon, which he obtained; but the Earl of Kent, who had joined him, was taken prisoner, tried for high treason, and beheaded.

As the king was now eighteen years of age, and a father besides, — for Edward, afterwards called the Black Prince, was born this year, — he thought it time to assert his royal authority and emancipate himself from the yoke of the queen-mother and her favourite. He was the more induced to this course, as the immo-

rality of their connection had long been the theme of popular outcry; but great circumspection was required to carry this resolution into effect, for the power of Mortimer was formidable.

In the month of October the Parliament met at Nottingham, while Isabella and Mortimer were occupying the castle with their retainers. The governor of the castle, however, had been won over to admit Lord Montacute and some companions through a secret subterranean passage that had an outlet at the foot of the castle hill.

About the hour of midnight they crawled through this passage, and when within the castle walls they were joined by Edward, who led them secretly into a dark chamber. Here they heard the voices of Mortimer and his adherents proceeding from a hall adjoining the queen's apartment, and they immediately burst in, killing two knights who guarded the entrance.

Isabella rushed from her chamber, and in an agony of grief implored her son to spare her "gentle Mortimer;" but he was deaf to her entreaties, carried off the favourite as a prisoner, and had him hanged on a gibbet at the Elms at Tyburn. At the same time Isabella was deprived of a great part of her enormous jointure, and shut up in her manor house at Risings, where she passed the remaining twenty-seven years of her life in obscurity, her son only paying her a ceremonious visit once a year, and never allowing her to interfere in state affairs.

Edward was now his own master; and incited as well by his own eagerness for martial glory as by the general feeling of the nation against the Scots, he resolved to make war upon them. A pretext for hostilities was easily found, in the fact that the treaty had not been faithfully kept; and after the English had gained two victories, David Bruce was dethroned, and Edward, the son of John-Baliol, made king in his stead.

He was soon driven into England; but he now, with the assistance of Edward, invaded Scotland, gained a decisive victory at Halidon in 1333, and was replaced on his throne. The price which Edward exacted for this service was enormous: Baliol was to acknowledge him as his superior, and to cede to him in perpetuity all the southern counties of Scotland; but the Scottish nation was not so far subdued as to submit to this, and for several years the country was desolated by war.

In the midst of this contest Edward obtained a prospect of another and more brilliant prize, namely, the crown of France.

The last three kings of France, who were the brothers of the queen-mother Isabella, had left no children, and as by a law of France called the Salic law, females were excluded from the crown, a more distant relative than Isabella, namely, Philip of Valois, had ascended the throne. Edward resolved to claim it, in right of his

mother; but for some years his own country was in too disturbed a state for him to prosecute his design. In the meantime Philip required Edward to do homage to him for Guienne, which he did, and thus virtually acknowledged his right to the crown of France, but he had not forgotten his own pretensions nevertheless, and only waited for a better opportunity of asserting them.

It was in the year 1336 that he first publicly proclaimed them; and, after making great preparations, borrowing money, and pawning the crown jewels, he at last invaded France in 1339. He had taken the field, however, too late in the autumn to effect much, and after ravaging the country through which they passed, the English forces retreated. In the following year a great naval victory was obtained over the French, 200 of their vessels were captured, and from 10,000 to 15,000 men destroyed. This was followed by another land campaign; but, after a long and unsuccessful siege of Tournay, Edward was obliged to retreat and conclude a treaty with the French king. He returned to England in a very gloomy mood, and quarreled with his ministers; some of whom he threw into prison for not seconding his views by supplying him with all the money he wanted for his military expenses. Still the Parliament refused to make him any fresh grants unless he gave them an equivalent in the shape of a reform of past abuses and a guarantee against future ones.

The rival monarchs were soon brought again into collision by disturbances in Brittany. John III., duke of that province, having left no children to succeed him, two candidates appeared to dispute the inheritance; the Count de Montfort, the late duke's brother, and Charles de Blois, the nephew of the King of France, who had married the duke's daughter.

An appeal was made to arms, and while Philip supported his kinsman Charles, De Montfort had recourse to Edward; to whom, as to the rightful King of France, he did homage for the duchy of Brittany.

The commencement of the war was unfavourable to De Montfort; he was surprised in the town of Nantes by his rival, and taken prisoner. But the Countess Jane de Montfort, his wife, defended herself heroically in the Castle of Hennebon, and even made successful sallies in person at the head of her men; and when she was nearly exhausted the English fleet under Sir Walter Manny arrived to her assistance and compelled the French to retire.

Edward himself repaired to the scene of action; but, after a series of unimportant operations, a truce for two years and three months was concluded by the good offices of two legates of the Pope. The truce, however, was of still shorter duration than had been expected; mutual infractions were complained of; and when Philip decoyed a number of Bretons to a tournament, seized them, and put

them to death without a trial, the English Parliament willingly granted supplies for the renewal of the war. (A. D. 1345.)

The first scene of action was Guienne. The Earl of Derby, Edward's cousin, fought there against the Count of Lille-Jourdain, whom he defeated in a decisive battle near Auberache; and soon after this the whole of Guienne was taken from the French. Edward about the same time went in person to Sluys, to treat with the deputies of the free cities of Flanders; and though he did not then come to any arrangement with them, he was followed to London by a deputation, who promised that the Flemings would in the following year pour an army into France, while Edward attacked it from another quarter.

In 1345 Edward collected a fine army, and, landing in Normandy, ravaged the kingdom without opposition to the very walls of Paris. As, however, he was separated from his allies, while Philip was receiving daily reinforcements, Edward deemed it prudent to retire northwards. His situation indeed was critical, for Philip pursued him with one numerous army, while another was advancing in his front to dispute his passage over the Somme. He succeeded, nevertheless, in crossing the river a little below Abbeville, but seeing an engagement inevitable he encamped at Crecy, where he resolved to await the enemy.

It was on the morning of the 26th of August that the two armies came into action. The English army was not in number equal to more than one-third of the French; but the latter were fatigued when they approached the line, and, from the different divisions not clearly understanding each other's movements, they had got into much confusion.

The Genoese archers were ordered at once to begin the attack, and it was in vain that they pleaded exhaustion and the damage their bows had sustained from the rain rendering them unfit for use. "Kill the lazy ribalds," shouted the Duke d'Alençon; and they were compelled to advance.

As they made their approach they raised a terrible cry to strike terror into the English, but the arrows of the latter flew so thick and fast in reply, "that it seemed as if it snowed."

Before this storm the Genoese recoiled; and on seeing them fall back, Philip, enraged, ordered them to be massacred, and the French men-at-arms actually attacked them, while the Duke d'Alençon and his cavalry galloped over them and trampled them down.

This cruel act was followed by the destruction of the whole French army. The English yeomen continued to shoot their arrows with unabated vigour into the confused and struggling crowd, and the Black Prince, who commanded the first line of the English, bore down upon D'Alençon's front ranks, and scattered his battalions. D'Alençon was killed, and Philip, who made seve-

ral desperate charges, was each time repulsed with great loss, and at last obliged to seek refuge in flight, riding till midnight, with only five knights as his companions.

The victory of the English was most complete and decisive. Eleven French princes, 100 nobles of high rank, 1200 knights, and 30,000 common soldiers lay in slaughtered heaps upon the field. The Black Prince gained great renown on this occasion, and his father embraced him before the whole army, saying, "Sweet son, loyally have you acquitted yourself this day."

By the victory of Crecy the tide of success was turned everywhere against the French. John, the son of Philip, who was besieging Sir Walter de Manny in the town of Aiguillon, was forced to raise the siege, and about the same time Charles of Blois was taken prisoner. Edward then laid siege to Calais, which after eleven months was captured, and became an English colony.

In the same year in which Edward gained the battle of Crecy his queen Philippa obtained a decisive victory over the Scots. A numerous army of Scots had invaded England under David Bruce, then king, but the queen had taken the field against them. She met the enemy at a place called Neville Cross near Durham, and Bruce was defeated and taken prisoner, with many of his knights and nobles, and carried in triumph to London.

A truce had been concluded between England and France for ten months, and it was unexpectedly prolonged by a terrible plague which invaded Europe. From the heart of China this pestilence swept across the desert of Cobi and the wilds of Tartary, and thence found its way into the Levant, Egypt, Greece, Italy, Germany, France, and England. It appeared in London in 1348, and, according to some historians, swept away, "besides much cattle," nearly one-half of the population.

During the ravages of the plague Edward made several offers of peace to John, King of France, on condition of his renouncing his pretensions to the French crown, in exchange for the absolute sovereignty of Guienne, Calais, and other lands formerly held as fiefs by the kings of England; but these offers were rejected, and in 1355 Prince Edward opened a campaign in the south of France with an army of 60,000 men, ravaged the country from north to south, and returned to Bordeaux laden with booty. A simultaneous movement made by his father in the north of France proved a failure; for, being at the head of a numerous army, he was unable to obtain sufficient food for them in the country, and had to turn back upon Calais.

While both the king and his son were thus engaged in France the Scots attacked and took the town of Berwick; whereupon Edward returned, and at his approach the Scots withdrew. He now resolved to effect a final conquest of Scotland; but,

after marching through the country of the Lothians and burning Haddington and Edinburgh, he was a second time compelled to retreat for want of provisions for the support of his troops. The Scots, though they would not meet him in the field, harassed his retiring forces, and inflicted dreadful vengeance on the rear of his army for the devastations he had committed.

Prince Edward still remained in France, and during these operations in Scotland he again took the field with about 14,000 men, mostly Gascons. He does not seem on this occasion to have had any further object in view than to plunder and lay waste the country; and this he accordingly did, plundering, burning, and destroying wherever he came. On his return, when he got to within two leagues of Poitiers, he found John in advance waiting to give him battle, with an army of 60,000 men, composed of the very flower of the nation. Famine was raging in the English camp, and the prince wishing to avoid a battle, offered John very advantageous terms, and Talleyrand, Cardinal of Peregord, also endeavoured to bring about a cessation of arms. John, however, would only agree to it on condition that Edward and 100 of his best knights should surrender themselves as his prisoners. This Edward refused to do, and both sides prepared for the struggle.

On Monday, the 19th of September, when the two armies drew up in order of battle, Prince Edward, to compensate for his inferiority of numbers, took his post on a rising ground, which was surrounded with vineyards and enclosures, and approachable only through narrow roads flanked with hedge-rows. A body of French knights attempted to clear the roads, but the English archers stopped their career, whilst at the same time a force of English cavalry, which had been placed in ambuscade, charged upon the French flank; and the troops commanded by the Dauphin, seized with a panic, fled with their leaders.

The division commanded by the French king in person was next attacked, and dispersed with fearful carnage; and the monarch himself, after having received two wounds and been twice beaten to the ground, was taken prisoner with his son and a great number of his knights.

The Black Prince earned even more honour by his conduct towards his captive than by his victory. He treated him with the most distinguished courtesy and all the honours due to a sovereign; declaring at the same time that his own victory was merely the result of chance, and that his prisoner by his gallant behaviour had won the "prize and garland" of chivalry.

After spending the winter at Bordeaux Prince Edward brought his royal captive to England, and assigned him the Savoy Palace, and afterwards the Castle of Windsor, for his residence.

The other prisoners experienced similar kindness, and were set at liberty on the payment of moderate ransoms. No other advantage was taken of the victory; and even the title of King of France, which was denied to John at the head of his armies, was ceded to him in his captivity.

On retiring from the field of Poitiers the dauphin Charles had returned to Paris and taken on himself the government of the kingdom; and in 1360 a treaty was concluded at Bretigny between him and the King of England, by which Edward agreed to renounce his pretensions to the crown of France, and the Dauphin to acknowledge in return his full sovereignty over Calais, Guisnes, Guienne, Poitou, and Ponthieu, as well as to pay in six years 3,000,000 crowns of gold as John's ransom.

John ratified this treaty and was set at liberty; but his nobles prevented him from fulfilling its important stipulations, and fearing that he should suffer from their crooked policy, he surrendered himself a prisoner, and quietly took up his old quarters in the Savoy, where he died, A.D. 1354.

In the year 1367 the Black Prince went to Spain to assist Don Pedro, the King of Castile, called Pedro the Cruel, to regain the throne, from which he had been driven by his subjects; and while in Spain the prince contracted a malady from which he never recovered, and he had to return in haste to Guienne.

The French king Charles had in the meantime been recovering his strength and making preparations for another war with England. The treaty of Bretigny had been for seven years little more than a dead letter; and Charles was only watching for an opportunity of setting it aside altogether. This was soon afforded him. The expedition in favour of Pedro the Cruel had obliged the Black Prince to impose additional taxes on his Guienne subjects; and the Count of Armagnac and other Gascon lords appealed against him to the King of France as his lord paramount. As Prince of Aquitaine and his vassal, Charles summoned him to appear at his court in Paris, to answer the complaints of the Gascon lords. This was the signal for war. The Black Prince replied that he would go to Paris, but that it should be at the head of 60,000 men; and although sick almost to death, he put himself at the head of his forces, and marched onward. Limoges, the capital of Limousin, had been betrayed to the Dukes of Anjou and Berri, who left a garrison in it, though they themselves retired; and the prince declared he would not move or attend to anything else till he had retaken this town; and being too ill to mount his charger, he had himself carried on a litter from post to post, pressing the siege with a kind of fury that had not hitherto been observed in him. It was not, however, till after a month's siege that a breach

was made in the walls, and then the besiegers rushed in, with orders to massacre all they found.

Most of the people they met were of the poor and humble class, who had nothing whatever to do with the betrayal of the town to the French, but they were all killed, and the whole city ransacked and burned to the ground. The only persons spared were some French knights, who had defended the town with great valour.

This was the last military exploit of the Black Prince; he returned to England and died in the month of June, 1376.

The Black Prince had been so popular with the English people, that his death, though long expected, excited great lamentation. His renown was thought to be intimately associated with the glory of his country, and it was said that the fortunes of England flourished in his health, languished in his sickness, and expired in his death. The king was much affected at the loss of his son, and abandoning all the duties and the burdens of state affairs, he retired into the country, and spent the remainder of his life between Eltham Palace and his beautiful manor of Shene. While the king passed this secluded life his ministers and courtiers crowded round the Prince Richard, Duke of Lancaster, the son of the Black Prince; and in 1377 King Edward expired at Shene, with only a single priest at his bedside. He was then in the sixty-fifth year of his life and the fifty-first of his reign.

The reign of Edward III. is often spoken of as the most glorious in the British annals. If wars and victories bring glory to a nation, this may be true; few more remarkable battles than those of Crecy and Poitiers are recorded in the history of the world. But the military spirit of Edward impoverished his country, both by withdrawing the services of the ablest part of its population, and by necessitating heavy taxation for the support of war expenses. Want of money, however, compelled Edward to increase the privileges of the lower classes, and the representatives of the Commons were now allowed to form a distinct legislative body: in 1363 the knights of the shire were separated from the barons, and sat with the burgesses or citizens; a measure by which the Lower House of Parliament gained great additional influence. One measure of improvement adopted during this reign tended to purify the English language. Since the Norman conquest the French language had been employed in all law proceedings; but in 1362 a law was passed directing that in future the use of the English should be restored. This encouraged the people to cultivate the native language, and authors to use it in their writings, and treatises on and translations of the Scriptures were written in it, and dispersed abroad for the spiritual welfare of the people. Perhaps it was in consequence of this that some abuses in the Church of

Rome began at this time to attract notice, and rich and poor to acquire a better comprehension of civil and religious liberty.

Edward III. has the merit of having greatly benefited English commerce by inviting over skilful artisans from Flanders, and introducing by that means the manufacture of fine woollen cloth, which had never before been practised here; but, useful as these were, the king had often great difficulty in protecting them from the selfish jealousy of the corporations.

Windsor Castle was built during this reign; but it was by the compulsory labour of masons, carpenters, &c., of which every county was required to furnish a certain number.

RICHARD II., surnamed of Bordeaux.

Richard of Bordeaux was the only surviving and legitimate son of Edward the Black Prince. He had been after his father's death presented (with the consent of the king) to both Houses of Parliament as the "fair and perfect image of his father," and the successor to all his rights On the death of Edward III. he was only eleven years old; but no regular regent was appointed; merely twelve commissioners to aid the chancellor and treasurer. On the 10th of July in the same year he was crowned with great pomp in Westminster Abbey. Before a short month had elapsed the English coast was menaced by a formidable French fleet, which plundered and laid waste the whole of the Isle of Wight, with the exception of Carisbrook Castle, and burned the towns of Hastings and Rye.

At Southampton this French force, which was assisted by some Spaniards, suffered a severe defeat; but they still continued to interrupt the foreign commerce of the country.

The government, being aided by the Parliament, was enabled to put a considerable fleet to sea, under the command of the Duke of Buckingham; but he met with little success, and in the year 1378 he was succeeded by his brother, the Duke of Lancaster, popularly known as "John of Gaunt." Under his command the English captured Cherbourg on the coast of Normandy, and gained by treaty the important town and harbour of Brest. The possession of these towns was of great advantage to the English, as it gave them two keys to France, and at the same time deprived the French of the two ports most convenient for attacks on England. There were, nevertheless, many murmurs against John of Gaunt, who was accused of wasting money, and of general mismanagement. A circumstance occurred soon afterwards that seemed to justify these murmurs.

The Scots, who had renewed the war, came into the port of

Scarborough, and captured every vessel there; yet no measures were taken by John of Gaunt to retrieve this disaster, while a certain John Philpot, a citizen of London, equipped a small fleet at his own expense, and not only recovered all the vessels, but captured the Scotch commander and many of his ships.

The expense of providing armaments to face so many enemies was very great, and to meet them the Parliament voted a tax of three groats on every person above the age of fifteen. The people, however, who had long been discontented, were much irritated by this tax, especially as it fell far more heavily on them than on the rich, who had only the same amount to pay. In the mode of its collection, too, much severity was employed; indeed the people were often grossly ill-treated, until at last in many of the rural districts they refused payment. This was especially the case in Kent and Essex, and it was in vain to attempt to punish the offenders: the law officers had to flee for their lives, and some even had their heads cut off. Nothing was now wanted by the people but a leader; and this was soon found in the person of a priest, who took the name of Jack Straw. In a few days the whole agricultural population of Essex, Kent, Norfolk and Suffolk was in arms. An act of brutality on the part of a tax-gatherer in the county of Kent fanned the flame of insurrection. This man went into the house of Walter the Tyler, or Wat Tyler, as he was familiarly called, and demanded a tax for his daughter. The mother said she was under the age; whereupon he said he would ascertain the fact, and offered an intolerable insult to the girl. Both mother and daughter cried out; and the father, who was at his work tiling a house in the town, rushed to the spot, and struck the ruffian dead. The bystanders applauded the deed, and promised to stand by Wat Tyler. The "Commons of Kent," as they called themselves, now rose as one man, and being joined by some of the men of Essex, they took Rochester Castle, entered Maidstone and Canterbury, where they beheaded three rich men, and then set out on their march towards London. On his route Wat Tyler was joined by great numbers of men from various districts, till by the time he reached Blackheath he had 100,000 nominally under his command. At this spot they were harangued by a priest named John Ball, whom Wat Tyler had taken from the prison at Maidstone and appointed chaplain or preacher to the people.

John Ball declared that all men were equal before God, and ought to be so before the law; he preached the equalisation of property as well as the destruction of the rich; and his eloquence had such an effect on the multitude, that they killed all the judges and lawyers that fell into their hands, and required whoever they met on the roads to swear to be true to King Richard and the

Commons, and to pay no tax except the fifteenths which had been paid by their forefathers. The young king, who was then only fifteen years old, threw himself into the Tower of London; but on the 12th of June he went down the river as far as Rotherhithe. On seeing him they raised a shout of exultation; but the king's attendants, mistaking their meaning, put about the boat, and rowed back to the Tower. The people now continued their march towards the City, apparently in a rather worse temper. They clamoured for the heads of those who were obnoxious to them; they destroyed the mansion of the lord treasurer, and broke open the Marshalsea and King's Bench Prisons. On the 13th they crossed London Bridge and entered the City, where their conduct was at first peaceable; they only required a redress of really great grievances, and paid a just price for all they consumed, but the madness of intoxication was soon added to political excitement. Some of the citizens, with a view of conciliating the insurgents, threw open their wine-cellars, and, as might have been expected, this led to mischief. In the course of a short time Newgate, the Temple, the Fleet, the Priory of St. John of Jerusalem in Clerkenwell, and many mansions were demolished, and from this violence they proceeded to bloodshed.

To every man they met they put the question "For whom holdest thou?" and if he did not give the answer "For King Richard and the Commons" (their own watchword) they put him to death. Many citizens were thus massacred, and the City was soon involved in fire, murder, and debauchery. A multitude now surrounded the Tower, and raised a cry for the heads of the chancellor and treasurer; and they were told in reply, that if they would retire to Mile End the king would come to them and grant all they asked. They complied with this request, and Richard came out of the Tower with only a few attendants, and rode to the appointed spot.

On reaching Mile End he found himself surrounded by 60,000 peasants; but their demeanour was mild and respectful, and their demands in accordance with justice and moderation. They required the total abolition of slavery for themselves and their children, the liberty of buying and selling in all markets, and a general pardon for past offences, as well as what they supposed the government could grant, the reduction of the rent of land to fourpence an acre.

The king assured them in a gracious manner that he would grant all these requests, and immediately set clerks to work to draw up copies of a charter containing the four clauses, which were sealed and delivered to them; and then the men of Essex, Hertfordshire, and others withdrew from the capital.

The men of Kent, however, in the meantime, had been joined

by disorderly persons and miscreants of various kinds, and had gained an entrance into the Tower, where they beheaded the chancellor, the treasurer, the king's confessor, and one of the farmers of the tax; and these dangerous men still remained behind, with Wat Tyler at their head. They were by no means satisfied with the charter which had pleased the men of Essex; Tyler, it is said, insisted on the total repeal of the forest and game laws, and two other charters that were drawn up and presented to him he still refused. The next morning the king, with a retinue of about sixty knights, barons, and gentlemen, rode to Smithfield and met the insurgents. Wat ordered his companions not to move till he gave the signal, and then rode boldly up to Richard, saying, "King, dost thou see all those men there?"

"I do," replied Richard; "why dost thou ask?"

"Because," Wat replied, "they are all at my will, and have sworn by their faith and loyalty to do whatsoever I should bid them." During this parley Wat, whose horse's head touched the flank of the king's, seemed to be playing with his dagger; and John Walworth, the Lord Mayor of London, thinking that he intended to stab the king, rode up and struck him, either with his sword or a mace.

Wat Tyler turned his horse to rejoin his men, and then Ralph Standish, one of the king's knights, thrust his sword into his side, and killed him.

On seeing their leader fall the men of Kent prepared for revenge; but Richard, with great presence of mind, rode up to them, and exclaimed, "What are you doing, my lieges? Tyler was a traitor! I am your king, and I will be your captain and guide!"

Possibly the intrepidity of Richard saved his own life as well as that of his companions. Some of the insurgents slipped away, others followed him quietly to the open fields near Islington, where the king was joined by a body of men-at-arms under Sir Robert Knowles; and then the men of Kent, seeing their cause hopeless, either fled or, throwing their bows on the ground, implored mercy. Richard affected at the moment to forgive them; but soon after, finding himself at the head of 40,000 men, he caused it to be proclaimed that the charters he had given were null and void, and that his promises meant nothing. He had all the insurgents who could be captured brought to trial in the different towns, and no less than 1500 of them, including the strolling preachers Jack Straw and John Ball, were put to death in the several counties where the revolt had broken out.

The obnoxious poll-tax, however, which had been the immediate cause of all this mischief, was collected no more, and in a few weeks a general pardon was issued "for all loyal subjects."

In the year 1382 the king was married to Anne of Bohemia. He was then only sixteen years of age, and was surrounded by persons of obscure birth and fortune, on whom he was continually heaping wealth and honours. Between these favourites and the king's uncles great jealousy arose, and a struggle ensued, in which neither party showed any regard to truth and integrity.

The Duke of Lancaster was accused of treasonable designs, and a civil war would have broken out, had not the king's mother effected a temporary reconciliation between the king and his uncle.

Richard then marched against the French and Scots, who had invaded Northumberland, and as they retired before him he crossed the Borders, burnt Edinburgh, Perth, and other towns, and then, disbanding his army, he returned to England. During this expedition a fresh quarrel arose between Richard and John of Gaunt, and soon, probably to get rid of him, the king enabled him to leave England to prosecute a claim that he had on the throne of Castile. He did not succeed in establishing this claim; but while he was in Spain he married his daughter Catherine to Henry, Prince of the Asturias, the heir of the King of Castile; and his posterity for many generations reigned there. Encouraged by the absence of John of Gaunt, and many of England's choicest warriors, the French determined to invade England; an army of 100,000 men was collected in Flanders for that purpose, and an immense fleet lay in the port of Sluys ready to carry them over. But this fleet was dispersed by a tempest, many of the ships were taken by the English, and then the army was disbanded.

By this time Richard was involved in a quarrel with his Parliament. His conduct and that of his favourites had excited great discontent, and an opposition party was formed, headed by the Duke of Gloucester, to drive the king's favourites De la Pole and De Vere from office. In this they succeeded; the estates of De la Pole were confiscated, and the government was vested in the hands of fourteen prelates and nobles. At the head of all was placed his uncle Gloucester, whom from that moment Richard hated with an intensity that seemed to point to the dark deed that followed not long after.

In 1387 Richard met his favourites at Nottingham, and requiring the attendance of the judges, induced them to give an opinion that his prerogative was above the law. The appeal was then made to arms, but the barons, supported by the people, gained a victory over the royal forces at Rudicot in Oxfordshire, and the favourites were obliged to fly, while some of their adherents were executed; and Gloucester, who was aware of the hostile feeling entertained towards him by the king and his favourites, drove every one of the latter, even to the king's confessor, from the court.

Richard now withdrew, leaving the reins of the government in the hands of the council, or commission; but at length he came and presented himself to a great council, held in May, 1389, and suddenly addressing his uncle, asked how old he himself was.

"Your Highness," replied Gloucester, "is now in your twenty-second year."

"Then," rejoined the king, "I am surely of age to manage my own affairs. I have been kept longer under control than any man in my dominions would be. I thank you, my lords, for your past services, but I want them no longer."

Having made this declaration, he demanded the great seals from the archbishop, and the keys of the Exchequer from the Bishop of Hereford, and in a few days he drove Gloucester from the council, and dismissed without opposition most of the officers he had appointed. But Richard had no real capacity for affairs of state, and he soon left them to his uncle the Duke of York and his cousin Henry of Bolingbroke, Earl of Derby.

For several years the government was carried on very quietly, and the country remained tranquil; the king was even apparently reconciled to his uncles the Dukes of Lancaster and Gloucester; and during this period a truce for four years was concluded with France and Scotland, and a revolt was suppressed in Ireland. In the midst of this general tranquillity Queen Anne died, and Richard married Isabella, the daughter of King Charles VI. of France, and in consequence of this marriage the truce with France was extended to twenty-five years. The marriage was nevertheless unpopular in England, and had been especially opposed by the Duke of Gloucester; a line of conduct by which in all probability Gloucester's fate was sealed. Richard had never been sincerely reconciled to his uncle, and he now resolved to strike the blow he had long meditated.

He first caused the Earls of Warwick and Arundel to be arrested, and then he went with a gay company to Pleshy Castle in Essex, where Gloucester was residing with his family. The Duke suspecting no treachery, came out to meet his royal guest, when he was instantly seized by the earl marshal, carried with speed to the river, put on board ship, and conveyed to the castle of Calais, where he was murdered. About the same time the Earl of Arundel was beheaded and the Earl of Warwick banished for life.

Richard now assumed absolute power, and was encouraged to do so by the obsequiousness of his Parliament, and the exhortations of his council. But his absolute conduct was of short duration; deep animosity excited by his late acts had taken root in the kingdom, and was strengthened by the aggrandisement of some new favourites. Richard seemed to desire power and money only

that he might lavish them on his minions, and lead a luxurious, indolent, and self-indulgent life; and in this state of things a remarkable circumstance occurred which tended to his overthrow.

The Duke of Norfolk happening to overtake Henry of Bolingbroke, now Duke of Hereford, on the road between Windsor and London, told him that the king had formed designs injurious to his father John of Gaunt and himself. The duke declared what he had heard in open Parliament, affecting to consider it a slander against the king; Norfolk maintained that he had spoken the truth, and, according to the knightly fashion of the age, challenged Hereford to single combat. The lists were prepared at Coventry, and the combat was about to begin, when the king, who was present, forbade it, sentencing Hereford to banishment for ten years, and Norfolk to exile for life. Besides this, he confiscated nearly all of Norfolk's property; and when, shortly after, John of Gaunt died, he seized also on the patrimony of Hereford. Other violent measures followed these, and all England was excited to anger against Richard; bands of armed men began to appear in various parts of the country, and at length the nobles, making common cause with the citizens of London, resolved to recall Hereford.

Accordingly, in July, 1399, Henry of Bolingbroke landed in Yorkshire, with a retinue of about sixty persons. Richard was at this time in Ireland; whither he had gone with a large army to avenge the death of the Earl of March, presumptive heir to the crown, who had been killed by the natives. As there was at that time very little communication between England and Ireland, three weeks elapsed before Richard heard of the arrival of Bolingbroke; who by that time had obtained the support of the Archbishop of Canterbury, and of the Percys and others, and was at the head of 60,000 men. Richard returned immediately, and landed at Milford Haven in the month of August; but finding the popular feeling strongly against him, he assumed the garb of a priest, and retired into Conway Castle, where he remained for some time, though in so destitute a condition, that he was compelled to lie upon straw.

Famine, however, at last drove him from thence, and he surrendered to Percy, Earl of Northumberland, who seems to have offered him delusive terms. He was met at the Castle of Flint by Henry of Bolingbroke, to whom he bent his knee, as to his sovereign, saying, "Fair cousin of Lancaster, you are right welcome." Henry replied, "My lord, I am come somewhat before my time, but I will tell you the reason. Your people complain that you have ruled them harshly for twenty-two years; but, if it please God, I will help you to rule them better."

Richard replied, "Fair cousin, since it pleaseth you, it pleaseth me likewise;" and then the trumpets sounded to horse, and, mounted on a wretched hackney, Richard rode as a prisoner to Chester.

No one pitied him for his fall, and an old chronicler says that his very dog left his side to fawn upon his destroyer.

From Chester the victorious Bolingbroke proceeded with his prisoner to London, and lodged him in the Tower; and he then issued writs, still in Rutland's name, for the Parliament to meet on the 29th of September. On this day a deputation of lords and commons waited on the king in the Tower, to receive his formal renunciation of the crown, and he acknowledged his own unfitness for government, and delivered his royal ring to his cousin Henry.

It was upon this resignation that Henry founded his principal claim; but, anxious to fortify his pretensions, he exhibited against Richard thirty-three articles of impeachment. These were read in Parliament; and as the king was declared guilty upon every one of them, his deposition was pronounced. The sentence was proclaimed by eight commissioners; and then Henry, who was seated in his usual place near the throne, rose, and having solemnly crossed himself, said, "In the name of God the Father, the Son, and Holy Ghost, I, Henry of Lancaster, challenge this realm of England, because I was descended by right of blood from the good lord King Henry III.; and through that right, God of his grace hath sent me, with help of my kin and friends, to recover it; the which realm was in point to be undone, for default of good government and undoing of the good laws."

He then knelt for a few minutes in prayer on the steps of the throne, and was afterwards seated upon it by the Archbishops of Canterbury and York.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.

1220. The study of the sciences of astronomy and geography revived in Europe.
1221. The rebuilding of Westminster Abbey begun.
1223. The slaves on the royal estates in France set free.
1246. Tiles first used in England for the covering of houses, which before this time were thatched.
1251. Silk much used by persons of high rank.
1253. Magna Charta solemnly confirmed.
1299. The Turks under Othman first attack the Greek empire.
1305. Wallace taken and executed in London as a traitor.
1307. About this time sea-coal began to be used in London, but only by brewers, dyers, &c.
1310. Lincoln's Inn Society established.
1312. The Order of Knights Templars abolished.
1320. Birth of John Gower, one of the earliest of English poets.

A.D.
1324. Birth of the reformer Wickliffe.
1331. Flemish manufacturers of broadcloth invited to England.
1346. Cannon first used by the English at the battle of Crecy.
1349. A dreadful plague prevailed from May to September.
1361. Another terrible pestilence from August to the following May.
1361. Wickliffe attacks the abuses of the Church of Rome.
1369. The third pestilence rages from July to September.
1377. Windsor Castle rebuilt under the direction of William of Wykeham.
1380. The Bible first translated into English by Wickliffe.

CHAP. X.

THE RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, LAWS, LITERATURE, ARTS, COMMERCE, MANNERS, ETC. OF THIS PERIOD.

Religion. — In the thirteenth century the papal dominion had reached its height in Europe, and in no country were the exactions and encroachments of the Roman pontiffs carried to a greater extent than in England. Few had the hardihood to resist these extortions; and, though Grostête, Bishop of Lincoln, raised his voice against them, it was not powerful enough to reach the mass of the population, and the demands of the Pope were always satisfied. The people were also further impoverished by the mendicant orders of monks: the Franciscans or Friars Minor, the Dominicans or Black Friars, the Carmelites or White Friars, and the Augustines or Grey Friars. These various orders, if they had, as they professed, a great desire to save the souls of the people, had also, it would seem, a no less ardent wish to get possession of their money; and they were mostly hostile towards each other, so that those who sought instruction from the Franciscans were told to beware of the Carmelites, the Carmelites denounced the Dominicans, and the Dominicans condemned the Augustines.

The exactions and assumptions of the Church of Rome, however, proved ultimately adverse to its own interest; for even in this period several measures were adopted to check the papal aggressions and limit the power of the Pope; and in the latter part of it the efforts of the legislature were seconded by the people. While king, lords, and commons were repelling by statutes the encroachments of the pontiffs, a great reformer shook the whole fabric of the doctrine, discipline, and policy of the church. This reformer was John Wickliffe (born about the year 1324); who, in a treatise entitled Of the last Age of the Church, boldly assailed the notions then commonly held on the subject of the authority of

the Pope. This was in 1356; and a few years later he attacked the mendicant orders, and subsequently inveighed against the conduct of the whole body of the clergy. His exertions in preaching, writing, and translating the Holy Scriptures made a deep impression on the popular mind; and when he was cited before the bishops of Lambeth, in the reign of Edward III., he had the support both of the nobles and the people. His favourite topic was the evil occasioned to the church by its wealth; and both he and his disciples went about barefoot and in the coarsest dresses Wickliffe died in 1384, after having laid the foundation of religious reformation not only in England, but throughout Europe.

Government and Laws.—In the reign of Henry III. the legislative acts most worthy of notice were his confirmations of Magna Charta and the Charters of the Forest, which then formed the basis of all English laws. In the reign of his son, Edward I., however, greater progress was made towards liberty; and during the last thirteen years of his life the English law received more improvement than in any one reign up to that of the present sovereign. A point that deserves especial notice at this time is the introduction of the deputies from towns and boroughs into Parliament; in which practice originated the present House of Commons. Edward confirmed the Great Charter no less than eleven times; and at length converted into an established law the blessing of which the people had had only a precarious enjoyment, by decreeing that no tax should be levied without the consent of both Lords and Commons. The results of these laws were seen in the reign of Edward II.; under whose otherwise calamitous rule there was a great reduction of taxation, and very few grants were made by Parliament. The fifty years of Edward III.'s reign, indeed, brought a still greater increase; but this was for the purpose of maintaining wars which were popular with the people, and all duties levied were granted by annual vote, first by the representatives of the cities and boroughs only, and after 1373 by both houses in the usual form.

In the reign of Richard II. the parliamentary grant to the crown was first called a subsidy, the term afterwards commonly employed. This subsidy was for an exportation duty on wool, woolfels, and leather, and an act was subsequently passed offering a discount from the duties of these articles to all merchants who would pay the Calais dues in advance: this was the first attempt made to anticipate the revenue; a practice which in later times gave rise to the national debt.

Literature.—The study of elegant literature was, during the period under consideration, almost abandoned for metaphysical disputation; and scarcely any other branch of learning was culti-

vated by the numerous students in the colleges of England and the Continent than Aristotelian logic and metaphysics. In some of the most famous universities the students had to take a solemn oath to defend the opinions of Aristotle, though they were acquainted with his writings only by false translations. The results of such a system as this could not but be adverse to the progress of real knowledge.

Divinity soared far above the Scriptures; the Schoolmen valued themselves on making improvements in theology without consulting them, and the few who still studied them diligently were called in derision Bible doctors.

In the mathematical and physical sciences some great names are to be found in this period; those, for instance, of Roger Bacon, Robert Grostête, Bishop of Lincoln, and John of Leyden: but the occupation of the mass of students in the universities was to learn bad Latin and worse logic. Many of the disputes constantly going on were not only endless, but unmeaning, and tending to perplex the most important truths and give plausibility to the greatest absurdities. A logical disputant of this period was not ashamed to contend that "two contradictory propositions might both be true:" and these frivolous arguments were carried on with so much eagerness, that the disputants often proceeded from angry words to blows, and raised dangerous riots in the halls of learning.

The Latin tongue, though its elegancies were neglected, continued throughout this period to be the language of the learned, both in England and on the Continent; it was that in which all epistolary intercourse was carried on, and in which books were written, not only by Scholastic divines and philosophers, but by writers on geometry, astronomy, chemistry, medicine, and other branches of mathematical and natural science; but French, which was the language of the court and nobility in England from the period of the Conquest, was also occasionally employed in literary composition. The great body of the people used in their common affairs the languages of their ancestors, the Saxon and English; and ballads and metrical romances were written in the English language before the reign of Edward I.

The true founders of English literature, however, appeared in the reign of Edward III. These were Laurence Minot, who wrote a series of poetical pieces on the warlike achievements of that king; William Langland, author of the Visions of Pierce Plowman; John Gower, who wrote much English, as well as Latin and French verse; and last and greatest of all, Geoffrey Chaucer.

Arts. — During this period little progress was made in agriculture. The country being almost constantly engaged in war, the

attention of the people was diverted from the improvement of their lands; and the uncertain tenure by which farmers held their possessions had a still greater effect in preventing the improvement of the soil. Gardening being under the protection of the nobility, had better success: every castle and monastery had its garden, orchard, and vineyard, and a considerable quantity of wine was made in England, said to be not much inferior to that of foreign countries.

In architecture this period produced the best models of what has been called the "lighter Gothic style" of building, many of the cathedrals which afford the finest examples of this style of architecture having been erected in this age. The chief characteristics of the sacred edifices of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries are steeples with spires and pinnacles; pillars formed of clusters of columns; lofty windows, sometimes towering to a point, sometimes much enlarged, and divided into several lights by stone mullions, and always filled by beautiful stained glass, representing the stories of saints and martyrs. There was a gradual improvement also at this time in domestic architecture, and castles and houses were erected of far greater elegance than had hitherto been seen in England. The progress of architecture was much assisted by foreign workmen, who, forming themselves into societies under the title of Free Masons, offered their services to the opulent and noble.

Sculpture and painting made at this time some advances, though not so great as those of architecture; apartments of state, and even those of private individuals, were sometimes ornamented with historical pictures, though they appear to have been of no very high order of merit. Painting on glass is first mentioned at this time in the form of precepts for glazing three windows in St. John's Chapel in the Tower of London, with representations of the Virgin Mary holding the Child, a Trinity, and a St. John the Apostle. The mode of executing such works was in medallions of various forms, inlaid upon a kind of mosaic ground in brilliant colours.

Several musical instruments besides the harp were now in use among minstrels; and a manuscript roll of the offices of Edward III. contains a list of performers on the trumpet, oboe, clarion, dulcimer, tabret, violin, and flute. Several other instruments are mentioned by Chaucer in his Canterbury Tales and House of Fame; and the same poet, in the Romance of the Rose, speaks of a lady's singing in language that implies much vocal ability and knowledge of music. Of British musical composition, however, no remains can be found until the fifteenth century.

Commerce. — The chief manufactures of England in this era were those of wool and leather; the exports were tin, worsted

stuffs, feathers, cheese, butter, honey, tallow, skins of various kinds, and "gaular," supposed to be osiers for making baskets. The greater part of the domestic trade was still carried on in fairs, which were frequented by great numbers of people from different countries, and stored with all kinds of commodities then known. Great impediments and embarrassments to trade were created by ignorant and contradictory legislation; but English commerce, nevertheless, made considerable progress during this period. A powerful impulse was given to navigation and commerce by the introduction of the mariner's compass, which was in common use soon after the middle of the thirteenth century. The exports appear to have been much larger than the imports, for in an account preserved of both in the Exchequer for the year 1354 the former exceed the latter by nearly 200,000*l.* Wool constituted in this year about thirteen-fourteenths of the whole exports of the kingdom; and it was during this whole period and for a long time afterwards the staple commodity of the export trade.

There were at this time societies of foreign merchants in England; the principal of which appears to have been that of the merchants of Cologne, who had a hall or factory in London, called their Guildhall, for the legal possession of which they paid thirty marks to the crown. It is also said that there was in existence an association formed by English merchants for trading in foreign countries, and called the Brotherhood of St. Thomas à Becket of Canterbury; but this does not rest on sufficient authority to be certain.

The denominations and values of the various kinds of coin continued much the same as in the preceding period. Edward III. in 1344 struck golden florins, which were ordered to pass for 6*s.*, and the halves and quarters were in proportion; but subsequently, on finding that he had rated them too high, he recalled these pieces, and coined the gold noble of 6*s.* 8*d.* It is on the coinage of this monarch that we first read the motto, "Dieu et mon droit," which was originally adopted in allusion to the claim to the French crown.

Manners and Customs. — Social life in England assumed during this period a refinement and splendour hitherto unknown. The chivalrous spirit then prevalent led to the exercise of almost unlimited hospitality in the palaces of princes and the castles of great barons, and it also, under the energetic rule of Edward I., and still more of Edward III., gave rise to many deeds of generous and heroic daring, though unfortunately such exploits were often accompanied by acts of revolting atrocity. By the influence of chivalry Edward III. sought to accomplish his vast designs, and every tournament he proclaimed increased the number of his supporters and added to his strength. His opponent Philip of Valois adopted the same course; so that a rivalry of pageants was kept up between

them. Edward established the Round Table at Windsor; a table 200 feet in diameter, and maintained at the expense of 100*l.* a week of the money of that time. The French king established a similar one at Paris; by the attractions of which he intercepted many German and Italian knights who were coming to England. Then Edward instituted the Order of the Garter, and again Philip also increased the number and splendour of his tournaments. The extravagance and ruthlessness of expense which this chivalrous spirit encouraged was not confined to courtly parades and tournaments, it pervaded every department of domestic, as well as of public and out-door life. Each man strove to outdo his neighbour; the squire endeavoured to outshine the knight, the knight to eclipse the baron; the baron vied with the earl, and the earl emulated the king. Trains of attendants were supported at a ruinous expense. Richard II. is said to have entertained 10,000 persons daily at his table, and Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, expended in one year 22,000 pounds of silver in hospitality. Gradually the feastings of chivalry became the every-day custom of the great, and the banquets of nobles and ecclesiastics displayed the most costly profusion. Extraordinary bills of fare of this period are in existence. At the installation feast of the Abbot of St. Augustine 3000 dishes were served up, and at the marriage banquet of Richard, Earl of Cornwall, in 1243, 30,000.

Wine was consumed in equal abundance; 371 pipes were drunk in one year in the household of Thomas, Earl of Lancaster. The wines were used either compounded or pure: the former are named, as *pigment*, *hippocras*, and claret; the latter were those of Spain, Greece, or Syria.

The mode of living at this period was such as to require vigorous digestion, and accordingly hunting, hawking, and all kinds of out-of-door sports were followed eagerly by all classes and both sexes. The in-door amusements differed from those of the preceding period by little else than the addition of chess. The jester, with his bells and his grotesque cap and bauble was still an inmate of noble and princely households. His office was to excite the jaded spirits of his lord by jests either intellectual or practical, and to keep the banqueting hall in a roar by his wit or his buffoonery. Mummery also — a coarse and primitive kind of masquerade — formed a favourite amusement of the time; and pageants were frequently introduced between the courses of public banquets, as well as in more popular entertainments. Archery was constantly practised, every village being furnished with pricks, butts, and rovers for competition; and at these trials of skill no man was allowed to shoot at a mark less distant than 122 feet.

Great improvements were made in the furniture of this period;

and many new articles, such as square-backed chairs, reading-desks, and clocks that struck and chimed the hours, were introduced. There are also repeated notices in the records of this age of silver, and silver-gilt plate, consisting of dishes, basins, ewers, chargers, salt-sellers, and spoons. A pair of knives, with sheaths of silver, and a fork of crystal, with fire-screens and fire-dogs, or andirons, are likewise mentioned in the wardrobe accounts of Edward I.

Some of the modes of dress were absurd enough. An English beau of the reign of Edward III. wore long pointed shoes fastened to his knees with gold or silver chains; a stocking of one colour on one leg, and of another on the other; short breeches which did not reach to the middle of his thighs; a coat, one half white and the other black or blue; and a silk hood, buttoned under the chin, and embroidered with grotesque figures of animals, and sometimes ornamented with gold, silver, or precious stones. The belles are described by Knyghton as coming to the tournaments, which were attended by many ladies of the first rank and greatest beauty, dressed in parti-coloured tunics, with their tippets very short, their caps remarkably small, and wrapped about their heads with cords; their girdles ornamented with gold and silver; and wearing short swords like daggers, "which hung across their stomachs."

They were mounted on the finest horses with richest furniture; and thus equipped they rode from place to place in quest of tournaments, by which they dissipated their fortunes and often ruined their reputation.

These ridiculous fashions of dress became the subjects of bitter reprehension from the moralists and satirists of the age; and the ladies are compared by them to peacocks and pies, "having long tails that trail in the dirt, a thousand times longer than those of such birds."

The costume of ecclesiastics of this period was very sumptuous, and some of the sacerdotal habits were nearly covered with gold and precious stones, and elaborately embroidered with the figures of animals and flowers. In the reign of Edward III. long beards came into fashion, and about this time mention is first made of beaver hats, which were probably manufactured in Flanders. Both in this reign and in that of Richard II. extravagant fashions prevailed in dress, and were changed "almost every year." All distinctions of rank and class, it was said, were becoming lost in the general extravagance and rage for magnificent clothing; and Chaucer in his Parson's Tale inveighs against the inordinate waste and excessive cost of the apparel of all classes, down to the menial servants, whom another writer describes as being arrayed in silk, satin, damask, and green and scarlet cloth.

CHAP. XI.

THE PERIOD FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY IV. TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF RICHARD III.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	SPAIN.
1399. Henry IV.	Robert III. (1390)	Charles VI. (1380)	Wenceslaus (1378).	...
1406. ...	James I.	...	...	...
1413. Henry V.	...	...	Sigismond	...
1422. Henry VI.	...	Charles VII.	...	...
1437. ...	James II.	...	Albert II.	...
...	James III.	...	...	...
1461. Edward IV	...	Louis XI.	Frederick III.	...
1472. ...	...	...	...	Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile.
1483. Edward V.	...	Charles VIII.	...	...
Richard III.	...	...	...	...

HENRY IV., SURNAMED BOLINGBROKE.

HENRY of Bolingbroke was crowned King of England, with the usual ceremonies, in Westminster Abbey, on the 13th of October, the feast of St. Edward the Confessor, and the anniversary of the day on which he himself had gone into exile.

At first all went "merry as a marriage bell," and Parliament was full of complaisance for the new king. It was not long, however, before difficulties arose, and even during the first session violent altercations broke out among the barons, and the term "traitor" resounded from every corner of the house. Forty gauntlets were thrown upon the floor as pledges of battle in the lists; and though Henry managed to quell the storm, he created in doing so many personal enemies. A conspiracy was formed to kill him at a tournament appointed to be held at Oxford; but Lord Aumerle revealed the plot, and the mischief fell on the heads of the conspirators themselves, all of whom were taken and executed.

This attempt was soon followed by the death of the ex-king

Richard II., who died at Pomfret early in the year 1400; but by what means is not known. It was ascribed to grief at the defeat of his party; but it is not unlikely that he was either starved to death or assassinated.

After this time Henry had no peace. The death of Richard involved him in a quarrel with France, and the English possessions in the south of that country were attacked, though the court of France never formally declared war against him.

With the people of England the desire for the conquest of Scotland was still active; and Henry determined on an expedition to that country. But the expedition was unsuccessful; and while he was still absent in the north a formidable insurrection broke out in the west under the command of Owen Glendower, who had been an esquire in the household of Richard, and retained an affectionate recollection of his old master. On his return from Scotland Henry marched into Wales to punish Owen; but the Welsh chieftain entrenched himself among the fastnesses of his country, and compelled the king to retreat.

In the year 1402 the Scots invaded Northumberland, but were defeated at Homildon by the Earl of Northumberland and his son Hotspur; and the Scottish general Earl Douglas was taken prisoner.

Owen Glendower still continued in arms; and in one of his predatory inroads into England he took prisoner Sir Edward Mortimer, the uncle of the Earl of Mortimer, whose hereditary right to the English throne was stronger than that of Henry. When the relations of Mortimer requested permission to ransom him, Henry refused it; and the consequence of this refusal was a formidable conspiracy of English nobles.

They formed a close league with Owen Glendower, released Earl Douglas on condition of his joining them with all his forces, and sent ambassadors to the Kings of France and Scotland to solicit their aid. A large army of English, Welsh, and Scots was raised, and placed under the command of Hotspur; but it was defeated at Shrewsbury, and all the leaders either taken prisoners or slain. (A.D. 1404.)

Several other revolts took place subsequently in England; but though they gave Henry much trouble, he was uniformly successful in his efforts to quell them.

His last opponent was the old Earl of Northumberland; who, at the head of a force chiefly consisting of Scots, made a vigorous effort for his dethronement. The aged warrior penetrated as far south as Knaresborough; but on the 28th of February he was defeated at Branham Moor near Tadcaster; and about the same

time Owen Glendower was so far subdued by Prince Henry in Wales, as not to cause the king any more trouble during his lifetime. The English possessions in France, however, were continually attacked by the French; nor could Henry ever obtain sufficient money from Parliament to equip any great expedition for their defence. The Parliament was indeed Henry's most successful opponent; ambitious, powerful, and adroit as he was, he was compelled to respect its wishes, and it was only by thus bowing to its will that he was enabled to retain possession of the throne. The Commons felt their strength increased by the weakness of Henry's title, and assumed power never exercised by their predecessors: while they voted him supplies they appointed treasurers of their own to see the money disbursed for the purposes assigned, and on one occasion required, and obtained, the dismissal of one of the king's servants.

But although Henry had surmounted every obstacle except the wholesome restraint of Parliament, and had humbled and destroyed his enemies, his last years were full of grief. From the anxieties he had endured he had become prematurely old, and he was afflicted with a cutaneous disease and subject to epileptic fits. His experience, too, and perhaps his conscience, had shown him the frequent hollowness and insincerity of men's hearts: in his latter days he mistrusted all mankind, and became gloomy, solitary, and suspicious; and even his devotions assumed a melancholy cast. Before his accession he was suspected of leaning towards the doctrines of Wickliffe; but in the first year of his reign he removed this suspicion by enacting a cruel statute for the burning of heretics. It was by him that penal fires for matters of religion were first kindled in England. In the tenth year of his reign he pronounced severe sentences against the writings of Wickliffe, and in the following year he rejected a petition for the revocation of his statutes against the Lollards, and told the Commons that the punishments should be made yet more rigorous. Perhaps these harsh acts of his busy years brought remorse to his old age, and his troubles were further increased by the conduct of his son the Prince of Wales. It seems likely that the dissolute conduct of young Henry has been exaggerated by Shakspeare and the old chroniclers, but the popular tales concerning his riotous behaviour could hardly be quite without foundation, and may well be supposed to have occasioned uneasiness to his father; and as the Prince of Wales was ambitious and popular, the afflicted and unpopular king may also have felt some jealous apprehension of his heir. His troubles in this world, however, were now not to be of much longer duration: for on the 20th of March, 1413, as he was praying before the shrine of St. Edward in Westminster Abbey, he was seized

with a fit, and being carried into the abbot's apartments, he there expired, in the forty-seventh year of his age and the fourteenth of his reign. He was buried by the side of his first wife in Canterbury Cathedral.

HENRY V., SURNAMED OF MONMOUTH.

The accession of Henry of Monmouth was hailed with universal acclamation; and on the 9th of April he was solemnly crowned without opposition. The favourable impression which his character had previously made on the minds of the people was deepened by his first acts; the removal of the body of Richard II. from the obscure tomb in the Friars' church at Langley to Westminster Abbey; the release of his rival the Earl of March from captivity; and the recall of the son of the gallant Hotspur from exile in Scotland.

The same generous course was pursued with other individuals; and the effect was seen in the devoted attachment created in men who had long been bitter enemies of the House of Lancaster.

Popular as Henry was, however, the first year of his reign was disturbed by a commotion in London occasioned by mingled religious and political feeling.

At this time the Lollards, though persecuted, retained considerable influence; and their tenets were more or less favoured by many of the nobles. Sir John Oldcastle, a distinguished soldier of the day (commonly called, in right of his wife, Lord Cobham), regarded the Lollards with particular good will, and was looked up to by them as their champion.

One night during the first session of the Parliament placards were stuck up secretly on the church doors stating that there were 100,000 men ready to assert their rights. Henry was incensed at the implied threat, and at this moment the Archbishop of Canterbury laid an accusation against Oldcastle. The young monarch had studied at Oxford with the accused, and wishing to save him, endeavoured to bring him back to the church; but all his arguments failed, and then Henry grew angry. He made some allusion to the statute against heretics; and when Sir John, to escape the storm, withdrew from Windsor to his manor of Cowling in Kent, Henry gave up his old friend to Arundel, and issued a severe proclamation against sectarians. The Archbishop cited Oldcastle to appear in his court, and when he did not obey Henry sent an armed force to commit him to the Tower. There, alone and unsupported, Oldcastle pleaded for two whole days in the synod of prelates and abbots, but in vain;—he was sentenced to be burnt, and Henry would only grant him a respite of fifty

days; but before that time had elapsed he contrived to make his escape, and fled to Wales. The king by proclamation offered immense rewards for his apprehension: no one would betray him, but his flight proved fatal to many of the Lollards.

Early in the year 1414 Henry, who was at Eltham, was alarmed by a report that the Lollards were assembling in the "pastoral meadows of St. Giles," and that they were headed by Oldcastle, who intended to dethrone him. Twenty-five thousand men were said to be in arms in these meadows; but when the king with his guards arrived there they found only about eighty, some of whom they killed on the spot; the rest were taken and executed.

It is not clear for what purpose the Lollards had met; but it seems probable that they had been induced to come there under false pretences by some emissaries of the clergy, in order to excite Henry to more active measures against them. Both king and Parliament seem really to have believed that the state was in danger; but it is likely that both were misled by the enemies of the Lollards. The measures that followed were very harsh: power was given by Parliament to all judges and magistrates to arrest any one suspected of Lollardism, and the prisons of London were soon filled with captives, some of whom suffered capital punishment; while the lands, goods, and chattels of all convicted of "heresy" were forfeited to the king, as in cases of felony.

This commotion in London was followed by a war in France, which, according to Hume, was incited by Chicheley, the successor of Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, in order to save "the moveables of Mother Church." At this time France was distracted by civil war; and Henry, taking advantage of this state of things, suddenly demanded the French crown, as the representative of Isabella, the wife of Edward II. His claim was absurd; for even if Isabella's right were admitted, the Earl of March, and not he, was the representative; but the church, the Parliament, and the people of England, nevertheless, encouraged his pretence; a large army was raised, and in the summer of 1415 Henry embarked with it at Southampton, for the conquest of France. He landed near the mouth of the Seine, and encamped before Harfleur, which he captured. After which, as the season was far advanced, he set out on his march to Calais, intending to winter there; but a formidable army lay between him and that place, for the French princes had been compelled by the presence of so dangerous an enemy to suspend their quarrels and unite their forces against him.

Near the villages of Agincourt and Francecourt Henry came up with the French; and though they were, on the lowest estimate, more than six times as numerous as the English, he resolved to fight them, telling his troops that he had made up his mind to conquer

or die, and that England should never have to pay a ransom for him.

A fearful battle ensued, in which the French, in spite of their great superiority of numbers, were completely defeated. Ten thousand of them, a great part men of rank, were killed, and 14,000 made prisoners. This victory, known in history as the battle of Agincourt, was complete; but Henry marched on to Calais without seeking further advantage.

On arriving there he held a council, in which it was determined that, as sickness prevailed in his camp, and famine and disease raged in the surrounding provinces of France, he and his army should return to England. He was received on his return with much pomp and pageantry, and in the first fervour of their enthusiasm the Parliament not only voted him all the supplies he asked for, but granted him for life a subsidy on wool and leather.

Henry remained in England during the following year; but in 1417 his restless ambition led him to renew his attempts on France; and he went over to Normandy with 20,000 men, and took possession of several of the principal towns; after which, as winter had set in, he betook himself to comfortable quarters.

It was during this winter that Henry's old associate Sir John Oldcastle again fell into the hands of his enemies. He had left his safe place of concealment in Wales, at the entreaty of the Lollards, who were smarting under cruel persecution, and had also invited the Scots into England and engaged to join them. The Scots advanced and laid siege to the castles of Berwick and Roxburgh; but were obliged to retreat on the approach of the regent, the Duke of Bedford. Sir John Oldcastle, who was at St. Albans, endeavoured to regain his former hiding-place; but he was captured, and arraigned before the House of Lords, who condemned him to be hanged as a rebel, and burnt as a heretic. The sentence was executed with circumstances of great atrocity; and the aged warrior, whom persecution had driven into rebellion, died with great courage, and was regarded by the Lollards as a saint and a martyr.

Henry resumed operations in Normandy with great vigour in the spring of 1418, undertaking several sieges at once; and by the beginning of July he was master of the whole of Lower Normandy; after which he carried his main force over the Seine, and laid siege to Rouen, the capital of Upper Normandy. Rouen was strongly fortified; on two sides it was washed by the Seine, and on all sides it was walled and defended by towers and batteries. For six months it withstood all attacks; but its brave defenders were at length subdued by famine, and on the 16th of January, 1419, Henry entered Rouen in triumph. The fall of this great and

strong city carried dismay into every corner of France; and as the country was still rent by the internal discord of its nobles and princes, there was no one to withstand the progress of the victor. The kingdom was one vast arena of crime, murder, and devastation: the Duke of Orleans had been assassinated by the Duke of Burgundy, and the Duke of Burgundy in his turn fell by the treachery of the Dauphin.

This was the state of affairs when negotiations were begun with Henry, who, following up his victory, was marching upon Paris. He took the town of Pontoise, and while there entered into a treaty by which he was to marry the Princess Catherine, the daughter of the King of France; King Charles was to continue in the enjoyment of his title and dignity for life, but Henry was to be declared heir to the crown, and to be entrusted immediately with the administration of the government; and the two kingdoms were to be for ever ruled under one king, each retaining its respective laws and privileges.

The marriage of Henry to Catherine was celebrated at Troyes, and after this Henry took up his residence at Paris. On Whitsunday of the year 1421 the two kings and the two queens, all with crowns on their heads, dined together in public, Charles receiving apparent homage, but Henry ruling in reality with absolute sway.

France, however, was not yet wholly subdued, and Henry turned his attention to the completion of his conquest. Sens, Montereau, and Melun submitted to him; but his treasury being exhausted and his army diminished, it became necessary for him to return to England to obtain fresh supplies.

During his absence the Dauphin, who had been wandering about in the southern provinces, collected an army, which eventually turned the tide of victory against the English; and alarmed at the the tidings of his success, Henry hastened back to France with 28,000 men; but he had scarcely commenced operations when he was seized with a fistula, which from the unskilfulness of the physicians became mortal. He expired at Vincennes in August, 1422, in the thirty-fourth year of his age and the tenth of his reign. His remains were carried to England, and interred with much funeral pomp in Westminster Abbey, near the shrine of Edward the Confessor. Henry's ambition, notwithstanding the accession of territory which he had momentarily gained, had really weakened his country and sowed the seeds of the disorders that marked the following reign. France and England suffered alike from his love of glory and his lust of power; but these qualities were regarded as virtues in that age, and by the vulgar in most countries are so still.

HENRY VI., SURNAMED OF WINDSOR.

Henry V. left no child but a son, not yet nine months old; and on his deathbed he had expressed a wish that the Duke of Gloucester should be Regent of England, and the Duke of Bedford of France. The Parliament, however, though it had warmly supported Henry in his wars, paid no respect to his wishes. As soon as it assembled it claimed the right of regulating the regency, and appointed a permanent council of sixteen members, with the Duke of Bedford for president. Bedford was then absent in France, and the Duke of Gloucester was appointed to act for him; and though the latter at first laid claim to the regency for himself, he was ultimately obliged to be satisfied with this regulation.

The death of Henry was followed in two months by that of Charles VI. of France, whose crown he had shorn of its glories. As soon as the Dauphin, who was in Auvergne, received the news, he was conducted by the knights of his party to a little chapel, a banner was raised with the arms of France upon it, and he was saluted with the cries of "Long live the king." Such was the inauguration of Charles VII., King of France. He was then in a very reduced condition; but the death of his father increased his moral strength, and he soon proceeded to Poitiers, where he was solemnly crowned and anointed. The whole country south of the Loire acknowledged his authority; but the northern parts still obeyed the Duke of Bedford, as regent for the infant monarch Henry.

War was the natural consequence of this division of the empire, and crossing the Loire once more, Charles fixed his head quarters at Gien, a small town on the right bank of the river, while the mass of his forces, under James Stuart, Lord Darnley, and Marshal Severac, fell upon Burgundy, and laid siege to Crevant. At this time his forces were superior to those of the English; and among them were many thousand Scots, on whose determined valour he placed great reliance. They were nevertheless defeated at Crevant with great slaughter by the united armies of English and Burgundians; and the next year (1424) a still greater victory was gained over them by the Duke of Bedford at Verneuil. In both these battles many Scottish and French knights were killed, and in the latter the Duke d'Alençon and many other nobles were taken prisoners.

The affairs of Charles now appeared desperate; but at this very moment the tide of events was unexpectedly turned in his favour.

The Duke of Gloucester had lately married Jacqueline, heiress of

Hainault and Holland, who had already been married to the Duke of Brabant, but had been absolved from her marriage-vow by the Pope. This duke was a vassal of Burgundy; and when Gloucester laid claim to his wife's heritage, and endeavoured to obtain it by force, he came into collision with the Burgundians, who had hitherto supported the English. About the time, too, that this quarrel arose between the allies the party of the King of France was further strengthened by the accession of the Duke of Brittany.

The Duke of Bedford was now obliged to return to England to raise new forces, and France enjoyed a respite from the war for two years; but at the end of that time the regent returned, resolving to strike a blow that should crush for ever the hopes of Charles. He laid siege to Orleans, then regarded as the centre of the kingdom; but the siege proved an arduous enterprise. It was, nevertheless, on the point of being taken, when there occurred one of the most wonderful events recorded in history.

Early in the year 1429, when the affairs of Charles were at the lowest ebb, messengers came to him from the town of Fierbois to tell him that the destined deliverer of France was at hand, and only waited permission to be admitted to his presence. This deliverer was neither prince, knight, nor statesman, but a poor country girl named Joan of Arc.

Joan was a native of the village of Domremy, on the Meuse; and had been incited to her strange undertaking by a prophecy that a virgin alone could rid France of her enemies. She laid claim to a divine mission for the redemption of her country; but when Charles was first told of this mission he burst into a fit of laughter. He consented, however, to see the maiden; but the interview was delayed for three days, as neither he nor any of those around him had any faith in Joan's inspiration.

At the end of that time messages came from Orleans imploring help, or the city must be lost, and Charles then agreed to admit the visionary girl. In this interview Joan was surrounded by all the greatest leaders and warriors of France; but she was quite unabashed, though modest in her demeanour, and declared in plain terms that she had a commission from the Almighty to drive out the English and conduct Charles to Rheims, where he was to be crowned King of France. She was asked for a sign of her mission; on which she replied, "Lead me to Orleans, and I will there give you a sign; and the sign that I am to give is the raising the siege of Orleans." Bishops, doctors, and lawyers were consulted, and at length it was resolved to put entire faith in Joan's mission, and adopt her as the forlorn hope of France.

The rank and staff of a general officer was assigned to her; she

had a suit of armour made to fit her, and she was then mounted on a snow-white charger.

The effect of her appearance on the people was astonishing; numbers flocked around her standard, and then, with a body of armed men and a great convoy of provisions, she marched forward towards Orleans. Joan insisted that the French warriors should be guided entirely by the dictates of certain heavenly voices which she said she heard; but the warriors did not put such entire confidence in them. They ordered, she said, that she should march straight on from Blois, by the right bank of the river; but the chiefs knowing that the best of the English troops were posted on that side, deceived her and passed by the left bank. Joan and the miraculous part of the expedition made their way by water, flanked by an immense body of horse, that kept close to the river. The garrison of Orleans was eagerly expecting her, and as she approached they sallied out from their gates, and fell upon the besiegers with renewed vigour, shouting "The Maid! the Maid is come." Orleans was saved. Joan made her way into the town, and was received by the poor starving people as an angel from Heaven.

This unexpected cause of renewed hope for the French was of course one of no little terror to the English, and many a bold heart in the camp of the besiegers quailed with unwonted fear. For two months past they had heard of nothing else but this miraculous maid; and now, in the relief of Orleans, she had, before their own eyes, given them full proof, as they thought, of her divine mission. Vainly did the leaders endeavour to convince them that the whole affair was a miserable juggle got up by their enemies, — vainly did they talk of the disgrace the Dauphin incurred by setting up a low-born woman as his champion, — Joan was still regarded as a minister of vengeance sent from Heaven.

The English leaders now changed their line of argument. Joan, they said, was not an envoy from Heaven but from Hell, — a foul sorceress, working by spell and witchcraft.

But the effect of this was still worse; as brave men, they said, they would fight any earthly enemy, but they were unequal to a contest with the powers of darkness. Superstitious fears increased; strange sights were seen in the clouds, strange sounds heard by the sentinels at night; figures were seen on horseback galloping through the air; and the moon and the stars wandered from their accustomed courses. The Flemings, the Burgundians, and the Picards forsook their English allies; and the Maid of Orleans, as she was now called, received a large reinforcement from Blois.

Joan now proceeded to authenticate her mission. One day, as she lay sleeping on her bed, she heard "the voices" telling her to go out and fight the English; and waking, she immediately called

for her arms. She then led the sally with the utmost intrepidity, and the bastille of St. Loup was taken from the English.

Two days afterwards she fell on another formidable position called the Tournelles, where, notwithstanding their superstitious fears, the English fought bravely, and twice repulsed their numerous assailants. But in a third assault Joan, who had mounted on the wall, was struck by an arrow, and fell as if dead into the ditch.

The wound was not really mortal; but the English believed it to be so, and when she again presented herself in their sight they felt assured she was more than human. A panic spread through their camp; men fancied they saw St. Michael the Archangel, the patron saint of the city of Orleans, riding on a white horse and fighting for the French.

Another assault completed the victory: the French became masters of the tottering walls of the Tournelles; and in a council of war held in the English camp that night it was agreed that the siege should be raised.

The victory had been dearly bought, since, for every Englishman that fell, there fell at least ten Frenchmen; but Orleans was saved, and that was thought sufficient to prove Joan's mission divine.

The Earl of Suffolk threw garrisons into various castles on the Loire, and shut himself up in Jargeau, a few miles from Orleans; but in ten days her white banner was planted on the walls, and the Earl of Suffolk was her prisoner.

The French king joined the Maid of Orleans now that the tide of victory seemed running in her favour; and, on the other side, Lord Talbot drew the troops out of the castles and retreated towards Paris. At Patay, however, being reinforced by 4000 men, he resolved to halt and fight the French again; but their captains, awed by the recollection of Agincourt, Crevant, and Verneuil, were very unwilling to risk a pitched battle in open field; Joan, however, had no misgivings, and asserting that the English were delivered into their hands, urged them on, until they at length consented.

They obtained a signal victory: terror spread through the ranks of the English, and while the greater part fled, some were killed, and others, amongst whom was the brave Talbot, were taken prisoners.

Immediately after the battle the Maid of Orleans rode up to the king and desired him to undertake the journey to Rheims. In the ordinary course of things this would have been considered impracticable, for Rheims was far off, and all the intervening cities and country still in the hands of the English; but with such a leader danger was not to be thought of, and it was resolved they should go on.

The city of Troyes — chiefly by means of a certain Friar Richard — opened its gates to the French; Chalons was delivered up by its bishop; and on the 15th of July, 1429, Charles made a solemn entry into Rheims, and was anointed and crowned in the cathedral church. When the ceremony was over the Maid of Orleans fell at his feet and exclaimed, "Gentle king! now is accomplished the will of God, who would have you come hither to Rheims to receive your consecration, and show that you are the true and rightful King of France."

On the entrance of Joan into the city of Troyes Friar Richard, in doubt whether she were not an evil spirit in the form of a maiden, had taken the precaution to sprinkle holy water on the gate, and make many signs of the cross over it. But as the maid stood this test, she was immediately proclaimed to be an angel; and the Friar forthwith attached himself to her and the king's service.

After the battle of Patay, Joan and Friar Richard gained more towns than several brave armies could have done in the same space of time; the friar by his eloquent discourse, the Maid by her mere presence with her white banner. Town after town surrendered as Charles marched from Rheims to the Isle of France, and as his success was ascribed entirely to Joan, his captains began to manifest some jealousy. She desired now to return to her native village, and to the care of her flocks and herds; but Charles had no wish to part with her, and always found some arguments to induce her to remain, though she seems to have felt that her career of victory was over, and her exploits drawing to a close.

The English regarded her as "a foul witch," and declared their intention of treating her as such whenever they could catch her; and the Regent Duke of Bedford especially, who was exerting himself most bravely to prop the falling dominion of his brother, spoke of her as a "limb of the devil."

The forces of Charles now made incursions to the very gates of Paris, and about the middle of August the two armies came in sight of each other; but the French captains were again reluctant to fight, and this time Joan did not urge them. Bedford then marched into Normandy, which had been invaded by the French; and when he was at some distance Charles turned round upon Paris, hoping to take it during the regent's absence, and several places in the neighbourhood opened their gates to him. The walls of Paris, however, were defended by the English; and in an assault that Joan led against the suburb of St. Honoré she was repulsed. As she had predicted that Charles and his captains should sleep in Paris that night, she was taunted with her failure; and she again

declared her resolution to withdraw from the army, but was persuaded by the king to relinquish it.

As the Duke of Bedford still remained in Normandy, Charles retired to winter at Bourges beyond the Loire, and while he was there another miraculous woman made her appearance, whose inspiration was of a financial character. This Catherine of La Rochelle asserted that she could recognise at a glance all persons who had concealed treasures, and promised Charles, who was greatly in want of it, abundance of money. Joan accused the new prophetess of imposture; but Friar Richard took up her cause, and both together declared deadly enmity to the Maid of Orleans.

In the spring of 1430 Charles advanced from the Loire to the Seine, bringing with him his two prophetesses, who now differed in opinion as to the measures to be adopted. Joan asserted that peace lay at the end of the lance. Catherine, who did not, like Joan, venture her person in battle, wished to negotiate with the Duke of Burgundy; but Joan's oracle prevailed, and the war recommenced. She marched to the relief of Compeigne, which was besieged by the soldiers of Duke Philip, and she fought her way into the town with a considerable reinforcement: but this was her last success; on the same day, the 25th of May, she made a sortie, and fell upon the enemy's lines, where she was defeated and taken prisoner. The whole army of English and Burgundians ran to gaze on their prisoner, and they sang *Te Deums* as if for a great victory.

Three days after her capture Friar Martin, vicar-general of the Inquisition, demanded, in right of the office he held, that Joan, called the Maid of Orleans, should be sent to him to be tried; but the prisoner had been sold by her capturer to John of Luxembourg, who, without taking any notice of the friar's demand, sent her off to his strong castle in Picardy. She was kept there in prison for six months, and at the end of that time she was transferred to Rouen, where, according to some accounts, the English loaded her with chains and shut her up in an iron cage. The French king, for whom she had done so much, had not the means, even if he had the inclination, to rescue her: her enemies, and the doctors of the University of Paris and the French bishops, asserted that religion would be in danger if such sorcery should remain unpunished. She was brought to trial before upwards of 100 doctors, priests, and learned men, whom the Duke of Bedford had summoned from far and near; and though she made a noble defence, and often confounded the whole array of power and learning brought against her, she was declared to be a heretic and an impious imposter, and condemned to die by fire. Alone and forsaken, surrounded by cruel persecutors, she was terrified into signing, or rather, as she could not write, putting her mark to a

paper containing a confession and renunciation of her errors, though it does not seem certain that she knew what the paper contained. But this served only to retard her fate for a few days. Her punishment had been commuted into perpetual imprisonment, and diet on the "bread of sorrow and the water of affliction," for which she was compelled to return thanks; but after she was taken back to her prison a military dress was purposely placed in her cell, and one morning it was discovered that she had put it on, tempted probably by the remembrance of the glory she had won in such attire.

This circumstance was caught at by her watchful enemies as a sufficient proof that she had relapsed into heresy; and she was carried to the market-place of Rouen wearing the livery of the Inquisition, and a cap whereon was inscribed "Heretic! relapsed apostate idolator," and was burned at the stake.

As the smoke and flames ascended she was seen embracing a crucifix, and the last word she was heard to utter was the name of "Jesus." The cause of the English was by no means advanced, as they had hoped it would be, by the burning of Joan of Arc. She had given an impulse to her countrymen, who forsook her, which carried them on to victory even after she had perished, and Philip, Duke of Burgundy, now became reconciled to Charles, and by a treaty signed at Arras he was restored to his throne. In vain had the young King Henry VI. been brought to Paris and crowned at Notre Dame, a desultory warfare only was now carried on; and in a few years, of all the extensive dominions the English had possessed in France, Calais alone remained. The death of the Duke of Bedford, which took place before the treaty of Arras, contributed much to the ill success of the English; for though the Duke of York, his successor, and the gallant Talbot endeavoured to recover the lost territory, they did not succeed, and at last a truce for two years, to terminate in 1446, was agreed to by all parties.

Henry of Windsor, as he was called, was now in his twenty-fourth year; but evidently of feeble capacity and very unfit to govern a kingdom; and it was thought that to find him a wife of intelligence and spirit superior to his own would be a good plan for remedying his deficiencies. The Earl of Suffolk had the credit or discredit of this contrivance; and he strangely selected for the bride Margaret of Anjou, the cousin of the French queen, and the devoted friend of the French king. In the negotiation for this fatal marriage, too, he agreed to resign Anjou and Maine, then still in the possession of the English, as the price of the young lady's hand. The Duke of Gloucester had at first opposed this marriage, but afterwards consented; and the unfortunate alliance took place.

Three years before this event the Duke of Gloucester had suffered

great humiliation in the prosecution of his wife, Eleanor Cobham, for treason and witchcraft. He had himself always been fond of scientific pursuits, and had kept in his house as chaplain a certain Roger Bolingbroke, who was very learned in astronomy, supposed in those days to include astrology and magic. Henry VI. was known to be sickly, and this chaplain and some others had been consulted by the duchess as to whether her husband, who stood next in succession, was ever likely to become king; and on this ground (after the duke had had a quarrel with Cardinal Beaufort) she was arrested, and accused of treason, in having, by sorcery and enchantment, endeavoured to destroy the sovereign.

No charge was proved against her except that of having in her possession a waxen image, by slowly melting which, according to the belief of the times, any desired death might be procured, and also of having sought by "love philtres" to secure the affections of her husband; but she was condemned nevertheless, and ordered to do public penance in three places in the city of London, and then to be imprisoned for life in the Isle of Man. The Duke of Gloucester bore this affliction in silence; but his enemies were contriving a still surer method of keeping him quiet; the new queen, with Suffolk, Beaufort, and their associates, had resolved on his destruction. Early in 1447 he was arrested and imprisoned on a charge of high treason, but before any trial took place he was found dead in his bed. His death was ascribed to apoplexy; but the general belief was that he had been murdered, and the suspicion was strengthened by Suffolk, who had been created a marquis, immediately seizing on all the duke's estates.

If the Marquis of Suffolk supposed that by the treaty of marriage with Margaret of Anjou he should ensure an honourable peace with France he was deceived. When the truce expired Charles consented indeed to renew it for short periods; but this was only to give himself time to strike a surer blow, which he did in the year 1449.

Some English soldiers who had been expelled from Maine had plundered a town in Brittany; and though the Duke of Somerset, governor of Normandy, offered reparation, Charles seized on the pretext to invade both the upper and lower provinces: fortress after fortress fell; and even Rouen, though bravely defended by the Duke of Somerset and Lord Talbot, was captured. On its capture Talbot was given as a hostage, and Somerset retired to Caen; but in the course of the following year he was driven also from thence, and the whole of Normandy was lost to the English. In the year after that (1451) Guienne also was conquered, and nothing remained to the English in France but Calais and a strip of land commanded by its batteries.

The fortunes of Suffolk in the meanwhile had been rising as rapidly as those of his country had fallen, and he had recently been created a duke; but a host of enemies had at the same time been springing up around him, and they were preparing for him a terrible reverse.

While the public mind was exasperated by the loss of Rouen he was attacked in both Houses of Parliament, accused of high treason, arrested, and sent to the Tower. Many charges were brought against him; but few, if any, were proved, and Suffolk threw himself on the mercy of the king his master. He was ordered to quit England, and to remain in banishment for the space of five years; but while the vessels carrying the exile and his retinue were sailing between Dover and Calais they were brought to by a great ship-of-war called the "Nicholas of the Tower," which ordered Suffolk on board, and detained him until there came alongside a small boat containing a block, an axe, and an executioner. Into this boat Suffolk was forced, and immediately beheaded; on whose authority was never known. His death, deserved or undeserved, seems to have been hailed with almost ferocious joy by the people, who had feared that, through the influence of Queen Margaret, he would soon have been recalled to power and vengeance.

Great excitement prevailed at this period against the government; before Suffolk's fall there had been p̄artial insurrections, and immediately afterwards a popular commotion of more importance took place. John Cade, a native of Ireland, who had assumed the noble name of Mortimer, claimed a descent which made him a relative of the Duke of York. He arrived from Ireland when the excitement against the government was at its height, and threw himself among the men of Kent, whose discontent was more universal, and whose complaints were louder than those of the rest of the nation. They chose Cade for their captain, and about the middle of June a body of about 20,000 of them marched towards London, and encamped on Blackheath.

The king sent to ask why "the good men of Kent" had left their homes; and they replied, under the direction of Cade, by presenting two papers, containing the "Complaints of the Commons of Kent," and the "Requests of the Captain of the Great Assembly in Kent," accompanied by bold demands for redress. The last-named document required the king to resume the grants of the crown; to dismiss the relations and friends of Suffolk from his court, and take about him those of the Duke of York; and also to punish the false traitors who had compassed the death of the Duke of Gloucester, and been the cause of the great losses in France.

The king, in reply to these demands, sent an army to the spot;

but Cade, who had fallen back from Blackheath to Seven Oaks, defeated a detachment of this army, and the rest refused to fight.

It was then thought prudent to disband the king's army and convey him for safety to the strong castle of Kenilworth. Cade seeing the way thus opened for him, marched into the capital, proclaiming himself "Lord of the City of London," and having taken prisoners Lord Say, an obnoxious minister, and Cromer, the sheriff of Kent, he had them beheaded.

At first the citizens favoured the attempt of the insurgents; but alarmed by some symptoms of an intention on their part to plunder the city, they attacked the main body of rebels on the bridge, and drove them back into Southwark. It was nevertheless rather by stratagem than by force that the men of Kent were conquered. A general pardon was promised to all such as should return to their homes; and this had the effect of creating a division among the insurgents, some being of opinion that they ought to accept the offer of the court, and others, that there was no faith to be put in it. Many went back into Kent, and Cade wished to accept the pardon; but 1000 marks were offered for his apprehension, and as he was making his way towards the coast of Sussex he was killed. His head was stuck upon London Bridge with the face turned towards the Kentish hills; and as many of his companions as were taken were put to death.

There was some suspicion that the Duke of York, who then governed Ireland, had been the secret instigator of Cade's enterprise; and it certainly occasioned his right to the throne to become every day more and more the subject of conversation, and encouraged his partisans to maintain it on all occasions. Probably, however, little attention would have been paid to his genealogy but for the increasing incapacity of Henry, and the odium created by the conduct of his wife. The duke in the meanwhile, though his right to the crown by descent was stronger than that of Henry, acted with much moderation, and on his return from Ireland in 1451, after paying a short visit to the king, he retired quietly to his castle of Fotheringay. He was silent as to his intentions for the future, but the court took the alarm, and endeavoured to set up a rival claimant to the succession in the person of the Duke of Somerset, Henry's nearest male relative. But though violent quarrels arose between the government and the Yorkists, and on one occasion the Duke of York took up arms, he was easily persuaded to a reconciliation.

At the end of the year 1453 his rival was committed to the Tower by Parliament; and early in the following year the king was seized with a distemper that increased his natural imbecility, so as to render him unfit even for the apparent performance of

the duties of his station; and the Duke of York was appointed lieutenant of the kingdom, with power to open and hold a Parliament.

In accepting this post York took care to obtain from the peers the most explicit declaration that he only obeyed their orders; and it was settled that he should retain his power till the king's recovery; or, in case he did not recover, till Prince Edward, then only a year old, should come of age. In about nine months, however, Henry recovered, or was said to have recovered, his reason, and the court claimed for him the full restoration to his royal authority; upon which the Duke of York at once resigned the protectorate.

The first act of Henry, or of those who acted for him, was to liberate the Duke of Somerset and raise him to the highest place in the administration. Upon this the Duke of York raised the banner of civil war, and in a battle fought at St. Albans he defeated the king's forces, and took Henry prisoner. Still he acted with moderation, making no claim to the crown, but contenting himself with again obtaining from Parliament the protectorship of the kingdom. This time he was to hold his authority till discharged of it by the Lords in Parliament; but to the surprise of most people, after the Christmas recess in 1456, Henry made his appearance in person before them, and demanded the restoration of his royal power.

The Duke of Somerset and many nobles of high rank had been killed in the battle of St. Albans, but all the officers appointed by the Duke of York during his short protectorate were now dismissed, and replaced by persons devoted to the queen. Causes of enmity now multiplied rapidly between Yorkists and Lancastrians, and they soon prepared to settle their differences by the sword. In the year 1459 a battle was fought between the two parties at Blorcheath in Shropshire, in which the Lancastrians were defeated. During the night, however, Sir Andrew Trollop, who was marshal of the Yorkist camp, deserted with all his men to the king; and this defection finished the campaign; the Yorkists broke up from their intrenched camp near Ludlow, and retreated in different directions. The Duke of York fled to Ireland; and the powerful Earl of Warwick, who supported him (afterwards called the "king-maker"), retired to Calais with the young Earl of March, the duke's heir.

War was resumed in the following year, and the Earl of Warwick recrossed the Channel, landed in Kent with 1500 men, and by the time he reached Blackheath saw himself at the head of 30,000. Amongst them were many bishops, knights, and nobles, and accompanied by them, and by the heir of York, he entered

London. Thence, without losing time, he marched into the midland counties, and at Northampton defeated the Lancastrians and took the king prisoner a second time. Henry was treated by the earl with great tenderness and respect, and the Parliament summoned to Westminster in his name; but now the Duke of York arrived from Ireland determined to claim the crown. He sent in a formal assertion of his right to the Lords, and required their immediate answer. The king requested them to search for arguments and proofs against this claim; but the only objections they seem to have raised were grounded on the oaths of allegiance to Henry, taken both by the duke and themselves, on the various acts of Parliament passed since the accession of the House of Lancaster, and the entails made of the crown in the male line only, whereas the duke claimed through a female.

These objections were easily answered, and the Lords were compelled to acknowledge that the hereditary right was in favour of York. It was finally agreed, nevertheless, that Henry should retain the crown during his life, and that at his death it should devolve to York and his heirs.

But the war was not yet over. When the king was captured at Northampton his queen Margaret and her son fled into Scotland, and there roused up the nobles to the support of her cause. Another battle was fought between the Yorkists and Lancastrians at Wakefield in Yorkshire, which was gained by the latter; and in this battle the Duke of York himself was killed. His son Edward, Earl of March, when the news reached him, hastened to join the Earl of Warwick, and on his way defeated a great force of Irish and Welsh, under the Earl of Pembroke. Before he could succeed, however, in joining the Earl of Warwick, that nobleman had been defeated by the queen's forces, Henry recaptured by the victors, and Edward, "late Earl of March," declared a traitor. Notwithstanding this, great numbers of men flocked to his standard; and when finally he did effect a junction with the forces of the Earl of Warwick, he had an army more than equal to the queen's.

She now retired, and Edward resolved at once to seize the throne, which he was encouraged to do by the acclamations of the people at a grand review that he held in St. John's Field; and on the 4th of March, 1461, he rode in royal style to Westminster, and was boldly proclaimed King of England.

EDWARD IV.

Edward had possession of the throne, but its price was still to be paid in the blood of his subjects. A battle was fought at Towton in Yorkshire, in which 28,000 men were left dead on the field; but the victory was Edward's, and on the 29th of June he was crowned at Westminster with the usual solemnities.

Yet Queen Margaret, though defeated, was not conquered; with her son and husband, and some of the Lancastrian nobles, she fled to Scotland, and in the year 1464 her adherents again took the field. They were, however, again dispersed at Hedgely Moor and Hexham, and the poor helpless king taken prisoner for the third time, and lodged in the Tower, while Queen Margaret and her son escaped by a hasty flight.

Edward's throne seemed now firmly established; for not only had he defeated the Lancastrians, but received the congratulations of the Pope on his accession, and concluded treaties both with Scotland and France. But this security was only apparent, for it was shaken till it fell by no more important occurrence than a sudden passion which he conceived for a beautiful woman. About the time when the battle of Hexham was fought he met with and speedily married Elizabeth, widow of Sir John Gray, a Lancastrian. She was acknowledged queen, and publicly crowned at Westminster; and after this the history of England for a time is little else than a chronicle of match-making and family intrigues. The new queen obtained five heirs of dukes and earls as husbands for her five unmarried sisters, and the relations and connections of the Earl of Warwick were deprived of their honours and emoluments, and replaced by the relatives of the queen. The "king-maker" of course took offence at this; and a circumstance soon after occurred which brought on an open quarrel between him and Edward. In the year 1467 the earl was sent to France to negotiate a marriage between Margaret of York, Edward's sister, and one of the French princes; but during his absence the lady was married to Charles, heir to the dukedom of Burgundy.

This Warwick regarded as an insult to him, and on his return retired in anger to his castle of Middleham. As he had been, while negotiating for the marriage, on intimate terms with the French king, it was supposed that he had become secretly disposed to restore the line of Lancaster, and all his family were expelled from the court. A seeming reconciliation afterwards took place, indeed, between the king and his old supporter; but it was of short duration, and the half-smothered resentment of the earl soon burst into the flame of open war. An insurrection broke out

in Yorkshire in 1469 among the farmers and peasants, and the earl was induced to repress it in the king's name; but scarcely was Edward freed from this danger than he found himself a prisoner in the hands of his liberator, who carried him off to Middleham.

Another reconciliation took place after this, and Edward was allowed to return to London; but the very next year there was open war again, and after some fighting the earl sought a temporary asylum at the court of Louis XI., the King of France.

Here Warwick met Margaret of Anjou and her son Edward, Prince of Wales; and in spite of their sworn enmity and the deep and lasting injuries each had inflicted on the other, a solemn compact of friendship was entered into between them. It was even agreed that as soon as Warwick should have recovered the kingdom of England for her, his second daughter Anne should be married to Margaret's son. This was a curious arrangement, for Warwick had lately married his eldest daughter Isabella to the Duke of Clarence, brother of the reigning king Edward, and the prospects of the two sisters would therefore be opposed to each other.

Stranger still did it seem that Warwick should dethrone and imprison the father, Henry VI., and then marry his daughter to the son. No sooner, however, had he entered into this compact with Margaret than he set about endeavouring to rescue her husband from captivity. This was not very difficult to effect. Aided by the French king Louis, he set sail for the coast of Devonshire, and as soon as he landed he was joined by such an army, that King Edward took fright, and made a precipitate retreat to Holland; whereupon Henry VI. was taken from his prison, reinstated in his palace at Westminster, and once more called king.

But this change, too, like the rest, was but for a short time; Edward's party, though depressed, was not destroyed, and the Duke of Clarence, deeply offended by Warwick's late compact, resolved to assist his brother to regain the throne. In nine months Edward IV. was back again; and after fighting a hard battle at Barnet, in which the Earl of Warwick was killed, he again became King of England, and Henry again a prisoner in the Tower. Queen Margaret had landed at Plymouth on the very day when Warwick was defeated and killed; but, still undaunted, she marched with the French troops who had accompanied her in the direction of Wales, in hopes of joining some forces of the Earl of Pembroke. She was overtaken by Edward, however, near Tewkesbury, and after a battle both she and her son were taken prisoners.

The queen and prince were brought into the presence of the victor, who asked the prince what brought him to England. The

lad replied, "My father's crown and mine own inheritance;" upon which the king brutally struck him with his gauntlet; an outrage that was received by those around him as a signal for his murder; and they soon completed with their swords this ferocious and cowardly crime. Nor did the tragedy end here. Several noblemen and knights who had supported Queen Margaret took sanctuary in a church at Tewkesbury; but they were dragged from the foot of the altar, and beheaded; and King Henry was soon afterwards found dead in the Tower: Margaret, though she was kept as a prisoner for five years, was ultimately ransomed by the King of France. Of the other leaders of the Lancastrian party some were assassinated, others shut up in prison, and some escaped to the Continent, and lived the remainder of their lives as exiles.

Peace being now restored, a Parliament was summoned, which ratified all the acts of the victor and recognised his legal authority; and then, freed from all his enemies, Edward gave himself up to a course of amusement, luxury, and guilty pleasure.

While he was thus indulging in dissipation he was aroused from his lethargy by a prospect of foreign conquest. In the year 1475 he entered into an alliance, offensive and defensive, with the Dukes of Burgundy and Brittany, and, agreeably to this treaty, had crossed the Channel with 16,000 men to invade the French territory.

His enterprise was checked by the failure of the Duke of Burgundy to support him as he had promised to do; but Edward compelled the French monarch to pay him a sum of 75,000 crowns down, as well as to agree to pay a sum of 50,000 crowns during their joint lives. It was also agreed that the Dauphin of France should marry Edward's daughter Elizabeth, or in case of her death her sister Mary; and that a peace, or at least a truce for seven years, should be concluded, with freedom of trade between the two countries.

England now remained tranquil for some years; but in 1478 a dark deed was perpetrated, of which the guilt rests on the House of York. The Duke of Clarence, whose wife had lately died, offered himself as a husband to Mary, the rich heiress of the Duke of Burgundy, and greatly excited by this the jealousy of his brother, who opposed it with all his might, and caused the marriage to be set aside. Clarence upon this made use of some unguarded expressions concerning the king, and this proved fatal to himself and his friends. A priest in his service named Stacey, and Thomas Burdett, one of his household, were tried on a charge of practising magic, found guilty, and executed. Clarence declared in council that his servants had met with an unjust doom; and thereupon he was himself committed to the Tower for what was called an inter-

ference with the course of justice. Soon after this he was himself brought to the bar of the House of Lords, and accused of dealing in magic, of plotting to dethrone the king, of feasting the king's subjects to induce them to believe that Stacey and Burdett had been wrongfully executed, and of spreading a rumour that the king himself was guilty of the "black art," and had dealings with Satan. Upon these strange charges Clarence was found guilty, and sentence of death pronounced upon him. He was not publicly executed, but died suddenly, as it was said, in the Tower; probably he was assassinated by his own brothers the king and Richard, Duke of Gloucester; and the common report was, that he was drowned in a butt of wine.

It has been stated that Edward afterwards suffered pangs of remorse for this murder, but his outward conduct betrayed no sign of such feelings, and his life continued in the same uninterrupted course of dissipation and debauchery. His licentious pleasures were somewhat disturbed in the year 1480 by a war with Scotland; but this was carried on successfully for him by the Duke of Gloucester.

At the end of that time, as King Louis of France had refused payment of the annual pension agreed for, Edward made preparations to invade France; but in the midst of these preparations he was seized, soon after Easter, by a disease brought on by his excesses, of which he died, in the forty-second year of his age, and the twenty-first of his tyrannical reign.

The character of Edward IV. places him amongst the worst of English monarchs. He was in a more than ordinary degree vindictive, cruel, sensual, and profligate; and the only atonement he ever attempted to make for his many evil deeds was by the practice of idle superstitions, too much encouraged at all times by the Church of Rome. He is said to have enjoined on Earl Rivers, the governor of the Prince of Wales, to bring up his son virtuously; but he seems to have forgotten that example is usually more effectual than precept, and that his own character and habits of life would probably do more harm to his son than the lessons of his governor could do good.

Almost the sole merit of this bad man is that of having done some service to literature by favouring the introduction of the art of printing into his dominions, and of encouraging Caxton, the father of English printing as he is called, in the practice of the noble art, destined soon to strike so effectual a blow at the superstition and ignorance which pervaded all classes of society.

EDWARD V.

At the time of Edward IV.'s death his son, a boy of thirteen, was at Ludlow Castle, and Richard, Duke of Gloucester, was in Scotland: and on receiving the intelligence Richard took measures to secure his nephew's succession, and came with him to London. He treated his nephew with great apparent respect, and there seemed at first to be no reason for doubting his good faith.

But if he had at any time been sincere, he soon ceased to be so; and under pretence of guarding the person of young Edward and his brother, he had them both conveyed to the Tower. Their coronation had been appointed to take place on the 22nd of June; but before that day arrived Richard gave full proof that he meant to seize the crown for himself. He obtained by his artifices several supporters among the nobles, and on the 10th of June he made a public declaration that the queen's relatives and adherents were plotting his destruction, and called on his friends in the north to hasten to his support. Among the nobles who held high offices of state there were many who opposed Richard's attempt, and none more than Earl Rivers and Lord Hastings. These two, therefore, Richard resolved to destroy. Earl Rivers was first arrested by his order, and he then resolved to rid himself of Hastings.

At the council held in the Tower on the 13th he suddenly demanded what those deserved who had plotted his death. All present acknowledged that they should be accounted traitors: and then Gloucester bared his left arm, which was withered and smaller than his right, and declared that it had been made so by the witchcraft of the queen and Jane Shore, the late king's mistress, who was now living with Hastings. Every one there knew that Richard's arm had been thus from his childhood, but no one said so; and Hastings, wishing to avoid a quarrel, remarked, "If they have done this they deserve punishment."

"If!" cried Richard, turning furiously upon him; "Dost thou answer me with ifs? I tell thee they have conspired my death, and thou art their accomplice;" and striking the table with his fist, — a preconcerted signal, — some armed men rushed in, seized upon Hastings, and hurried him to the green within the Tower; and after allowing him a short time for confession to a priest, beheaded him on a log that lay there. On the very same day Lord Rivers, Lord Gray, and others were seized by order of the tyrant, and put to death at Pontefract Castle; and Lord Stanley, the Archbishop of York, and the Bishop of Ely, were arrested and shut up in the Tower.

Jane Shore was delivered over at the same time to the ecclesiastical court, and condemned to walk through the crowded streets of the City on a Sunday, barefooted, with no clothes but a garment called a kirtle, and carrying a lighted taper in her hand.

Sunday, June the 22nd, was the day that had been fixed for the coronation of young Edward V.; but on that very day Dr. Shaw, the brother of the Mayor of London, preached a sermon at Paul's Cross, in which he insinuated that Richard had a better right to the throne. He threw out hints that the late King Edward and his brother Clarence were not really the lawful sons of the Duke of York, whom he said they did not in the least resemble, whilst Richard, the Lord Protector, was the very image of that noble Duke. It had been arranged that, as he said this, Richard should suddenly make his appearance; but by some accident there was a delay of a few minutes, and the preacher, not knowing what to do, said his speech twice over. This enabled the people to see through the artifice, and when they were expected to cry "Long live King Richard" they only gazed at each other in silent astonishment.

The Duke of Buckingham, however, was more adroit, or more fortunate than Dr. Shaw; for when he presented himself on the hustings at Guildhall two days after, and openly proposed that Richard should be made king, though the most respectable citizens demanded time for reflection, some few threw up their caps and exclaimed "Long live King Richard!" This was considered enough; and on the following day Buckingham, with a deputation of the citizens, waited on Richard at Baynard's Castle, and offered him the crown: which, after some affectation of reluctance, he accepted.

RICHARD III.

On the 6th of July Richard and his wife Anne, the daughter of the Earl of Warwick, were crowned at Westminster Abbey. He had gained the crown by deep and complicated crime, and by crime he kept possession of it. At first, indeed, he sought to render himself popular by acts of clemency; and he released Lord Stanley and the Archbishop of York from their confinement in the Tower; giving out that he meant to keep the crown only till his nephew was twenty-four years old and able to govern, but his real intentions were very different.

After his coronation Richard began a tour through the country. He visited Warwick, Coventry, Leicester, Nottingham, Pontefract, and York; at the latter of which places he and his queen were again crowned. Meanwhile a movement had begun in London, which gradually spread over the whole south of England. Meetings were held by the friends of the queen-mother, and a resolution

was passed to liberate the young princes from the Tower. But the poor young princes were already liberated by death; for during his progress through the country their merciless uncle Richard had sent orders to Sir Robert Brackenbury, the governor of the Tower, to have them murdered. Brackenbury, however, bravely refused to obey the order; and then Richard found a fitter instrument in Sir James Tyrrel, to whom he commanded Brackenbury to deliver up the keys and the command of the Tower for twenty-four hours.

Tyrrel took with him two persons, named Miles Forest and John Dighton, both men accustomed to dark deeds; and one night in the month of August the three ascended the staircase of the chamber where the young princes were sleeping. Tyrrel waited at the door, while the other two ruffians entered the room, and smothered the two children in their bed.

Tyrrel examined the bodies of the victims to see if the deed was completed, and then ordered the murderers to bury them at the stairs'-foot, deep in the ground, under a heap of stones.

Richard endeavoured to keep the secret of this atrocious murder; but it became known, and the terrible news at first disconcerted the conspirators; but they had now gone too far to draw back, and they resolved to set up a new competitor for the crown in the person of Henry, Earl of Richmond, who represented the line of Lancaster by right of his mother, a great granddaughter of John of Gaunt. Many noblemen of distinction, and among them the Duke of Buckingham, who had assisted Richard to obtain the crown, now invited Richmond to England; and on the 18th of October, the day fixed for the general rising, Henry was proclaimed at Exeter, Devizes, Maidstone, Newbury, and Brecknock. On receiving the invitation he collected a force of about 5000 men; with whom, after a stormy passage, he arrived at Milford Haven in Wales, and landed without opposition, while Richard summoned all his "loyal subjects" to meet him at Leicester, and set a price upon the heads of the confederates. Before the arrival of Richmond, Buckingham was taken prisoner, and executed in the market-place of Salisbury. Other friends to his cause had been compelled to take refuge in flight, and their estates had been seized by Richard, or given to his adherents; but, notwithstanding these adverse circumstances, Richmond steadily pursued his course.

It was the month of August when he landed; and after crossing the Severn he was joined by the Talbots and a few other powerful families. His forces indeed were still much inferior to those of his rival; but he calculated that scarcely one man in ten would really fight for Richard, and he pressed on with vigour. On his route his strength was constantly increasing by desertion from the enemy, and when he at last met Richard's army at Bosworth Field, many more rode over to him, while others stood aloof, ready to take either

side that might be victorious. Of all the nobles who followed Richard, scarcely one but the Duke of Norfolk, and his son, the Earl of Surrey, remained faithful to him. Had he delayed the battle, he would probably have been even more completely deserted; and there is no doubt that he saw the danger, but, with a bearing still undaunted, he gave the order, and the struggle commenced. It was fierce but brief; and while it was raging Richard on a sudden put spurs to his horse, and shouting "treason," dashed into the midst of his foes.

He had caught sight of Richmond, and hoped to gain the victory by taking the life of his rival; which was not an unlikely result if he could have reached him, as the tyrant was both skilful in the use of his weapons and personally brave. He cut his way through Richmond's forces till he came close to him, killed his standard-bearer Sir William Brandon, and was aiming a deadly thrust at his foe, when he was overpowered by numbers, thrown from his horse, and dispatched with many wounds. The crown, which it appears he had worn in the battle, was picked up, battered and blood-stained, and placed on the head of Henry of Richmond, who was then saluted as king by the whole army; and the dead body of Richard, after being exposed for a few days, was buried with very little ceremony at the church of the Grey Friars in Leicester. Such was the end of Richard III., after he had possessed for little more than two years the crown he had obtained by so many crimes. With him, too, ended the dynasty of the Plantagenets, and those "Wars of the Roses," as they were called, that had so long desolated the kingdom.

The appellation, so little in accordance with the character of these savage and destructive contests, was derived from the adoption by the respective parties of roses for their emblems, a white one by the Yorkists, and a red by the Lancastrians.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.

1400. Death of the poet Chaucer.
1401. A priest burnt for following the doctrines of Wickliffe.
1407. A plague destroyed 30,000 of the inhabitants of London.
1419. The famous Sir Richard Whittington, Lord Mayor for the third time.
1422. The English and French courts spend their Whitsun-holidays together at Paris.
1429. The siege of Orleans raised by Joan of Arc.
1436. John Guttemberg practises the art of printing at Strasburg.
1442. The African slave trade begun by the Portuguese.
1453. Constantinople taken by Mahomet II., and the Greek empire finally overthrown.
1455. First battle between the Lancastrians and Yorkists at St. Albans.
1474. Printing introduced into England by William Caxton.

CHAP. XII.

THE RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS, LITERATURE, ARTS, COMMERCE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, ETC. OF THIS PERIOD.

THE Lollards and followers of Wickliffe had during this period greatly increased, and they had become formidable to the Romish Church.

At the head of them had stood Lord Cobham, whose character and death have been already recorded; after that event the Archbishop of Canterbury commanded the University of Oxford to appoint a committee of twelve of its most orthodox members to examine the works of the Reformer Wickliffe, and extract from them what they should consider as heretical doctrines; and in compliance with this injunction they transmitted to the primate a report containing no less than 300 of such errors; which he then forwarded to the Pope, with a request for permission to take the bones of Wickliffe from his grave and throw them on a dung-hill, to be trampled upon. The Pope, however, though he condemned the doctrines, would not have the ashes of the Reformer disturbed.

The doctrines continued, notwithstanding the condemnation, to spread both in England and Germany; in both which countries men laid down their lives for the truth, though in the former the Wars of the Roses had had the effect of interrupting the persecution against them, so that the very storm proved their shelter.

The Romish Church seemed now more opposed than ever to the spirit of reform that had arisen; greater stress than before was laid on pilgrimages, processions, and indulgences, and greater power claimed for the priests, though the general character of the clergy in this age was such as to call forth the animadversion even of their own party, by whom they were often declared to be profligate, illiterate, negligent of their duty, lascivious, and rapacious.

Government and Laws.—The constitution, government, and laws of England were considerably improved in this period. Philip de Comines, after describing the disorders that prevailed in the governments of France, Germany, and Italy, and the cruel oppression under which the people of all these countries groaned, remarks: "In my opinion, of all the states of the world that I know, England is the country where the commonwealth is best governed and the people least oppressed.

Besides the improvements in the constitution, several excellent laws were passed for the regulation and encouragement of trade, the security of property, and the liberties of the people. Even the

"bold bad man," Richard III. is said to have been "a good legislator for the ease and solace of the common people, whom he desired much to attach to his cause." His laws were the first written in the English language, all former ones having been in French or Latin, which were not understood by the nation. The laws of Richard III. were also the first printed in England.

Literature. — The unsettled state of Britain, France, and other European countries, which were kept in continual agitation by war and revolution, could not but prove unfavourable to the progress of literature and learning. In the church the most valuable livings were often bestowed on men destitute of knowledge, while the best scholars in the kingdom were left to languish in obscurity, or driven to obtain a wretched subsistence by licensed beggary. It was not uncommon, during these deplorable civil commotions, to find men who had been educated at the universities traversing the country as mendicants, with a certificate from the chancellor, setting forth their acquirements. What kind of treatment they sometimes met with from the coarse-minded ignorant nobles to whom they addressed themselves may be imagined from a story told by Anthony Wood, the historian of the University of Oxford.

Two itinerant students, he says, having one day presented themselves at a baronial castle, and sought an introduction by the exhibition of their academical credentials, in which they were described as having a talent for poetry, were ordered by the baron to be suspended in two buckets over a draw-well, and dipped alternately into the water, until each should produce a couplet on his awkward situation. A considerable number of duckings had to be given, affording of course good sport to the baron and his menials, before the unfortunate captives had finished their rhymes, and were set at liberty.

In many minds, however, the love of knowledge was still active, prompting them to the most zealous exertion in its behalf. In the course of the fifteenth century no less than forty new universities were founded in Europe; and several new colleges added both to Oxford and Cambridge. Printing also, which has contributed more than almost all other causes to dispel the intellectual darkness in which the world was involved, was introduced into England during this period, about thirty years after it had been first practised on the Continent. William Caxton, originally a mercer of London, had the honour of being the first to practise it in this country. He printed the works of Chaucer, Gower, and Lydgate, as well as translations from Latin, French, and German authors, the greater part consisting of religious works and books of romance and chivalry. Wickliffe's translation of the Old Testament still remained in manuscript.

Arts. — Great improvements were made in architecture during this age, and the style called the Perpendicular Gothic, considered essentially English, was brought to perfection, although the "Continental Gothic" was on the decline. Many churches and castles were erected in this style, all elaborately ornamented, and with profuse heraldic decorations. The internal fittings of dwelling-houses were, however, still in a rude state; neither linings nor plaster ceilings were yet introduced, and tapestry and hangings were used to cover the deficiencies of ill-closed doors and windows. One marked feature in the history of architecture of this period is the revived use of brick for building, by which a complete revolution in the art was subsequently effected.

English music began in the fifteenth century to assume a greatly improved form, though still in what would now be thought a very rude and infant state. Such as it was, however, it was practised by every person of rank, and by all who had received a liberal education; so that there was probably at least as much genuine love of music as in our own time. Even the hero of Agincourt was a performer on the organ, as was also his refined contemporary James II of Scotland. The youths at the universities studied church music, and bachelors' and doctors' degrees were taken in the science. "Minstrels," says Warton, "were paid for their services more highly than priests;" though this was only true of a few who excelled in the art. But it is to be observed that it was regularly recognised as a profession, and chartered by Edward IV.; the guild or fraternity of minstrels being governed by a marshal and two wardens annually chosen.

Commerce. — Much as the English of this age were engaged in war, commerce continued to increase. The articles of export were mostly the same as in the preceding period; but there were some new English manufactured goods, amongst which may be mentioned both gunpowder and guns; and the existence of many opulent merchants clearly indicates the increasing extent of commerce.

Individuals rose to great wealth, and sometimes even to rank and power, by the successful pursuit of trade. William de la Pole, a merchant who flourished in the time of Edward III., was made chief baron of the Exchequer, and a knight banneret; his descendants became earls, marquises, and dukes of Suffolk, but were finally ruined by a royal alliance and the prospect of succession to the crown. Another of the opulent commercial men of this age was Richard Whittington, famous in story for his adventures in connection with his no less renowned cat; but these must be regarded as belonging rather to the region of poetry and fable than of history; Whittington was not in reality a poor scullion boy,

but the son of Sir William Whittington, knight; he was elected three times Lord Mayor of London, and his almshouse at Highgate still remains as a monument of his wealth and benevolence.

Regular merchants were not the only traders in these times, for frequent mention is made of trading vessels which were the property of kings, nobles, and ecclesiastics of rank. Edward IV. made great profit by his commercial undertakings, and William of Trumpington, Abbot of St. Albans, traded extensively in herrings, and kept agents for the purpose at Yarmouth.

Fish was an article both of export and import; for while herrings were sent into foreign countries, other kinds of fish were procured from Ireland in exchange for cloth, wine, ale, corn, and salt. In connection with the subject of trade and commerce it may be mentioned, that it was at the close of this period that public posts were first established for the conveyance of intelligence in England and France. Letters were forwarded by them at the rate of a hundred miles a day, by means of post-horses changed every twenty miles; but these posts were reserved for the exclusive use of the government. The English coins of this period, with two exceptions, were gold and silver pieces of the same denominations as before. The new ones, which were much admired, both at home and abroad, for their purity and beauty, were called nobles and angels; the former worth nineteen and the latter fourteen shillings of our present money.

Manners, Customs, &c.—As the country advanced in wealth, and intercourse with foreign countries became more extended, improvements of various kinds were introduced in all the accommodations of domestic life. This was especially the case with regard to furniture. Classically-shaped chairs and stools, elaborately worked tables, Arras tapestry (so called from the town of Arras in France), "beds of gold swans," "beds of feathers and leopards," reading desks, brass chandeliers, &c., are mentioned in wills and manuscripts of the period. In the earlier part of it the extravagant fashions of dress introduced by Richard II. underwent very little alteration. The principal change appears in the hair, which, instead of being worn long or in natural curls, as it had been from the time of the Conquest, was now cropped close by all but military or aged persons. The fifteenth century was remarkable for a mixture of all the absurdities and extravagances of preceding times, with a few additions. The kings of this period were notorious for their love of finery and dress; and their example was naturally followed by their subjects. For them, however, sumptuary laws were enacted; and in the last year of the reign of Edward IV. cloth of gold or silk of a purple colour was forbidden to all but the royal family; another

kind, rather less costly, was allowed to dukes and earls; and knights might wear velvet or damask satin for their gowns and doublets.

To esquires and gentlemen satin and camlet were permitted, but only noblemen were allowed woollen cloth made out of England, or "furs of sables:" and no labourer, servant, or artificer might presume to wear cloth that cost more than two shillings a yard.

This last injunction suggests some curious comparisons of the condition of the lower classes of that period as compared with those of the present, since two shillings of that time must be considered as at least equal to eight or ten of our money.

The spirit of chivalry declined rapidly during the fifteenth century; and the few private combats that occurred were mostly judicial encounters, intended to decide the truth of charges of treason or other criminal accusations. The few tournaments that were held commenced with the splintering of lances without points, and ended with a regular number of strokes dealt with blunted swords or axes. This decline in chivalry was regarded by some as foul degeneracy, and various expedients were devised for its restoration. Printing itself was made the medium of an endeavour to revive the expiring spirit of knighthood, but the effort failed. "Chivalry," as it has been said, "had fulfilled its purposes in the great process of civilisation, and it passed away with the occasion that called for it and the peculiar condition of things by which it had been maintained."

Hospitality, however, the usual attendant on chivalry, survived the change; and the castles of the powerful barons were still daily crowded by their numerous retainers, who were always welcome to their plentiful tables. The frequent civil wars indeed made it the interest of each noble to strengthen his party and provide for his personal safety by the maintenance of as great a crowd of retainers as he could afford.

It was by this extensive hospitality that the celebrated Earl of Warwick acquired the influence that procured for him the title of "King-maker." Thirty thousand men, it is said, were daily maintained at his manors and castles; and when he was in London six oxen were consumed at the breakfast of his household, and "every tavern was full of his meat." In his whole establishment the noble vied with the monarch; for, besides armed retainers, he had his privy-counsellors, treasurers, secretaries, chaplains, choristers, stewards, pages, mimics, rope-dancers, jugglers, tumblers, and buffoons.

In the period immediately succeeding the Conquest the meals taken in England were usually but two; but these were afterwards increased to four: breakfast was taken at seven in the morning, dinner at ten, supper at four in the afternoon, and *livery*, a col

lation taken in bed, at eight or nine in the evening. The breakfast was a very substantial meal; but, fortunately for the health of the consumers, they usually rose at four, and had three hours of active employment before breakfasting. In the "Northumberland Family Book" the private fast-day breakfast of the earl and countess is described as consisting of a loaf of bread in trenchers, two rolls or manchets of the finest flour, two pieces of salt-fish, six "baconed herrings," four white herrings, or a dish of sprats, with a quart of wine and a quart of beer. On flesh days the fish was replaced by mutton or beef, and dinners, suppers, and liveries were all of the same abundant and substantial character: so that this period might almost be distinguished as the "age of gluttony." Princes, nobles, and priests were all equally given to those table indulgences: and the secular clergy were not ashamed even to press religion into the service of gormandising, by the institution of what were called "glutton masses:" which were feasts, held five times a year, in the especial honour of the Virgin Mary.

On these occasions the villagers repaired to the church laden with provisions and liquor, and when mass had been hurried over, priests and laymen set to work at the viands, and not unfrequently converted the church into a scene of swinish intemperance and riot.

The ordinary food of the common people seems to have been plentiful; consisting of joints of meat, coarse brown bread, and ale or beer. Their meals, contrary to the present practice, were at later hours than those of the higher classes.

The sports of the nobility and gentry differed but little from those of the preceding age, hunting, hawking, and mumming being still the chief amusements. Under the head of mumming may fitly be placed the splendid pageantries with which English kings were occasionally received into London. Among what we may call the theatrical amusements of this age the one most in favour was the "mystery;" a kind of play on some subject found in the Bible, in which a use was made of it that to us often sounds very profane, though probably it might not always appear so to the rude and simple audiences of those days. Besides these, there were a few secular plays, acted by itinerant players wherever they could collect an audience; but which were little else than buffoonery and licentiousness.

To the sedentary sports of former periods may now be added that of card-playing: the oldest and most favourite games of which seem to have been those called "Trump" and "Primero:" the latter resembling the modern game of whist. The active popular sports of the former period, running, leaping, wrestling, &c., had now received the addition of tennis; and in the winter

the young men of the metropolis were in the habit of skating by means of two shank bones of sheep tied to their feet. There were also games called prisoners'-base or bars, hood-man-blind or blindman's-buff, battledore and shuttlecock, and other games still in use among children of the present day.

In speaking of national manners we must not omit to mention that the habit of swearing seems to have been disgracefully prevalent among the English, especially the military, and to have brought them into great contempt on the Continent. Henry VI. is particularly commended by an historian of his reign for not having yielded to the practice of profane swearing, and having reproved his ministers and officers of state who were guilty of it.

CHAP. XIII.

THE PERIOD FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY VII. TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	SPAIN.
1485. Henry VII.	James III. (1460)	CharlesVIII. (1483)	Frederick III. (1440)	Ferdinand and Isabella.
1488. ...	James IV.	...	Maximilian I.	...
1498. ...	...	Louis XII.	...	...
1504. ...	...	...	...	Philip of Castile.
1509. Henry VIII.	...	...	...	...
1513. ...	James V	...	...	Charles I.
...	...	Francis I.	...	...
1519. ...	...	...	Charles V.	...
...	Mary	...	...	...
1547. Edward VI.	...	Henry II.	...	...
1553. Mary.	...	...	...	Philip II.
...	...	...	Ferdinand II.	...
1558. Elizabeth.	...	...	...	...
1559. ...	...	Francis II.	...	...
...	...	Charles IX.	...	...
1560. ...	...	...	Maximilian II.	...
1567. ...	James VI.	...	...	...
1574. ...	...	Henry III.	...	...
...	...	...	Rodolph II.	...
1589. ...	...	Henry IV.	...	Philip III. (1596.)

HENRY VII.

THE first act of Henry after his victory in Bosworth Field was to put into safe custody in the Tower of London Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, the son of the late Duke of Clarence, and, next to the Princess Elizabeth, the heir of the House of York. This done, he marched towards the capital, where he was joyfully received; and on the 30th of October he was anointed and crowned king by Cardinal and Archbishop Bouchier.

It had been stipulated by his adherents that he should marry the Princess Elizabeth, in order to unite the claims of the York

party with his own; and though, after his victory, he showed some unwillingness to fulfil his engagement, he yielded on receiving a request from the Parliament to the same effect. The marriage took place in 1486, and thus at length the long desired blending of the Red and White Roses was accomplished.

This union, it was hoped, would put an end to the civil war that had so long raged in England; but Henry, though he had thought it prudent to comply with the wishes of his Parliament, still remained in his heart the enemy of the House of York; and on this account was hated by the adherents of the fallen house, and many conspiracies were formed and tumults excited against him. Henry was jealous of the claims of his wife, and took care to allow her no sort of authority. When shortly after his marriage he made a royal progress through the kingdom, he left her behind; by which the people were much disappointed: and his general conduct towards Elizabeth helped to create him enemies, who at different times threatened the stability of his throne.

His first danger arose from a young adventurer, the son of a baker named Simnel, who undertook to personate the Earl of Warwick. Instructed by a priest of Oxford, he proceeded to Ireland, declaring that he had escaped from the Tower; and as the House of York had many friends in that country, he was received with open arms as Edward Plantagenet, and proclaimed under the title of Edward VI. On hearing of this event, Henry first issued a general pardon to the adherents of the House of York, and then took Edward Plantagenet from the Tower and conducted him in the most public manner through all the principal streets of London.

This judicious measure had its due effect in England; but in Ireland men were not so easily convinced; they asserted that Henry had merely dressed up a boy to look like Edward Plantagenet, to deceive the people. The Irish lords sent emissaries to Flanders, where the Earl of Lincoln, Lord Lovel, and others were living in exile; and, aided by the Duchess of Burgundy, they set sail for Ireland with a body of 2000 Germans, to support Simnel's pretentions. On their arrival he was crowned in the cathedral of Dublin with a golden diadem taken from the statue of the Virgin Mary.

The new Edward VI. determined now to cross the Channel with his faithful army; and while Henry was staying at Kenilworth, after having levied troops in various parts of the kingdom to meet the coming danger, the counterfeit monarch landed at the southern extremity of Furness. The invaders were joined, on landing, by Sir Thomas Broughton, and from the coast they advanced towards York; but, though they expected to be joined by many malcon

tents, "their snowball," it is said, "did not gather as they went, for people came not unto them, neither did any rise or declare themselves for them in any part of the kingdom."

Though thus disappointed, the invaders turned southward to meet Henry, and the two armies met at Stoke near Newark.

A battle was fought, in which the forces of the invaders were utterly defeated; one-half of them perished, and Simnel with his patron priest Simon were taken prisoners.

Henry committed the priest to prison; and his fate was never known, but he was heard of no more. Towards Simnel he adopted a contemptuously merciful course by sparing his life, and condemning him to become a turnspit in the royal kitchen, though he afterwards promoted him to be one of the royal falconers.

After the victory of Stoke Henry travelled northwards, in order to punish those who had favoured the invaders; but his object appears to have been rather the gratification of avarice than of revenge, for his punishments all consisted of fines and ransoms. On his return he thought it prudent to allow Elizabeth his wife to be crowned; which was accordingly done at Westminster, though Henry himself took no part in the ceremony, but merely witnessed it from behind a lattice or screen that concealed his person.

During the next three years Henry's chief concern was the obtaining subsidies from his Parliament, and levying them on his people, mostly under pretence of assisting the Duke of Brittany against the French. In 1489 so much harshness was used in levying one of these subsidies in the northern counties, that they broke out into an insurrection, which at one time endangered the throne, though it was afterwards put down by the king's troops under the Earl of Surrey. In 1492 Henry called upon Parliament to vote him fresh supplies, in order that he might form an alliance with Spain and Austria against Charles VIII. of France, whom he denounced as a disturber of the Christian world. An act was passed to enable those who might be eager for glory to alienate their estates without payment of the ordinary fines, and many knights and noblemen thus encouraged did really sell or mortgage their estates, hoping to indemnify themselves by the conquests they should make in France. A large army was raised, and Henry embarked for Calais; but he did not really intend to make war, but to obtain money from Charles; and in this he succeeded, for by a treaty concluded at Etaples, Charles agreed to pay him 149,000*l.* sterling; whereupon Henry returned to England, to the great discontent of those who had sold their estates to follow him.

In the same year in which he made this inglorious expedition Henry's throne was again threatened by a pretender. A hand-

some young man, whose real name was Perkin Warbeck, had landed in the Cove of Cork, giving himself out to be Richard, Duke of York, the second son of Edward IV. He had escaped, he said, when his elder brother was murdered in the Tower, and after being a wanderer and a fugitive for seven long years, he had come to claim his inheritance. Many of the Anglo-Irish nobles would have drawn their swords for him, but the powerful Earl of Kildare showed some reluctance, and Warbeck therefore was induced to accept a pressing invitation from the French court. King Charles treated him at first as lawful heir to the English crown, and many English exiles went to Paris and bound themselves to his service; but, after concluding the treaty of Etaples, he at once ordered the adventurer out of France. Warbeck turned for protection and assistance to the Duchess of Burgundy, who embraced him as "her dear nephew," and bestowed on him the poetical appellation of "The White Rose of England."

Henry sent messengers to Flanders to state that the "White Rose" was the son of a converted Jew merchant of the city of Tournay; and he afterwards demanded the surrender, or at least the expulsion, of Warbeck. But this was refused; and Henry in consequence prohibited all intercourse of his subjects with Flanders, and transferred the mart of English cloth from Antwerp to Calais.

The Flemings, who suffered severely from the loss of their trade, began to murmur; Warbeck's party was filled with alarm at the numerous executions of English knights and nobles who were known to favour him, and his situation became very critical.

In this dilemma he adopted the rather desperate resolution of invading England with a few hundred men, and landed accordingly at Deal; but the country people did not join him, on the contrary, they took many of his party prisoners, and he had to return with the remainder to Flanders as fast as possible. In 1496, however, he was obliged to leave that country again, and seek a refuge in Scotland, as the Archduke Philip had entered into a commercial treaty with Henry.

The Scotch king received Warbeck with open arms, married him to Lady Catherine Gordon, the daughter of the Earl of Huntley, related by her mother's side to the House of Stuart; and, moreover, concluded a treaty with him, as if he had been a sovereign prince, and resolved to attempt placing him on the English throne. Warbeck had also obtained some assistance from the French king and the dowager Duchess of Burgundy; and having collected about 1400 men of various nations, he accompanied the army of King James across the Border. But the English people

would pay no attention to his claims; his allies ravaged the country, and in a short time they were obliged to go back to Scotland.

Immediately after this the people of Cornwall rebelled against Henry; but their rebellion had no connection with the cause of Warbeck, being occasioned by the heavy taxation to which they were subjected. Led by several noblemen, and with an army of 16,000 men, they marched towards London, and got as far as Blackheath; but there they were defeated with great slaughter.

After this, King James of Scotland again crossed the Tweed, and invaded England in support of Warbeck's pretensions; but again he was unsuccessful, and being threatened with an attack on his own dominions, he returned home, and dismissed Warbeck from his court. The adventurer then went once more to Ireland; but he could not induce the people of that country to rise in his behalf, and resolved therefore to try his fortune in Cornwall. There he was a little more successful, and soon found himself at the head of a host of Cornish men; but they were defeated at Taunton, and Warbeck himself driven to seek a refuge in the sanctuary of Beaulieu in the New Forest; and at last, finding himself in a hopeless position, he was induced to accept a pardon offered him by Henry, who had previously surrounded the sanctuary with troops to prevent his escape. Warbeck was now permitted to live in Henry's court; but, forbidden ever to leave the palace and becoming weary of confinement, he made his escape, but was retaken, placed in the stocks at Westminster Hall, compelled there to read a confession of his imposture, and then committed to the Tower.

There he became acquainted with the young Earl of Warwick, who was also a prisoner, because Henry was jealous of his claims to the crown. They agreed to make their escape together, but their design was discovered, and they were both executed. Warbeck was hung at Tyburn and the Earl of Warwick beheaded on Tower Hill, A.D. 1499.

From this time Henry reigned without a competitor, and his remaining years were chiefly spent in amassing money, which he raised without the help of Parliament and by the most arbitrary and unlawful methods. His treasury became full to overflowing, but still he went on grasping at more and more.

In the year 1500 he married his son Arthur to Catherine, the daughter of Ferdinand, King of Spain; and when the prince, who was but fifteen years old, died very shortly after his marriage, Henry determined he would not lose the rich portion brought by the bride, and so married her to his other son Henry, who was then a boy of twelve.

In 1503 the queen Elizabeth of York, died, and immediately

Henry began to look out for a rich wife for himself. Several alliances were proposed, but they seemed not to satisfy him in what he regarded as the one thing needful, namely, money. He appeared now to have no other desire than to increase his store, and ministers, lawyers, and priests, when they found this was the case, did their utmost to gratify his ever-increasing covetousness, proclaiming that passive obedience and the payment of taxes however levied, were the duty of all loyal subjects. In 1506 an event occurred that gave Henry hopes of making an advantageous bargain with Spain.

The Archduke Philip, whilst sailing from the Netherlands to Castile with his wife Joanna, was driven by a storm into the port of Weymouth. Henry received and entertained them with great politeness at Windsor; but while he appeared to be showing them hospitality, had in his own mind determined to make them pay a high price for it. He drew up a treaty of commerce, which was very advantageous for himself; he demanded Philip's sister, Margaret of Savoy, with a portion of 300,000 crowns, in marriage; and also desired that Philip's infant son Charles should be betrothed to his youngest daughter, the Princess Mary. Besides making these demands, Henry required the immediate surrender of the Earl of Suffolk, who had recently offended him, and had taken refuge in Flanders; and the archduke found that, with all the show of respect paid to him, he was in reality a prisoner until he agreed to Henry's conditions; and after a little hesitation he did so, but was not suffered to depart till Henry had the Earl of Suffolk safely lodged in the Tower, though with a promise that his life should be spared.

Philip died soon after his return to Spain, and then it occurred to Henry that his widow Joanna, Queen of Castile, would be a richer match than his sister, so he dropped the treaty for the duchess, and proposed for the queen. Her father, Ferdinand of Spain, however, opposed his suit, and Henry, finding he was not allowed to marry Joanna, said his son Henry should not fulfil the marriage contract with the Princess Catherine. At last, however, he agreed that Prince Henry should complete the marriage when he should have received the marriage portion, but not before.

Some of the Infanta's dower was accordingly paid, but the king did not live to witness the celebration of the marriage. His health had long been in a wretched state; and when he became aware that death was approaching, he did not find much comfort in his riches; on the contrary, they now brought him painful and remorseful thoughts, for he knew they had often been obtained by the sufferings of his people. He began to listen to the bitter complaints that had long been made against two lawyers named Empson and Dudley, who had been the willing instruments of his rapacity,

and he ordered compensation to be made at least to some of those who had suffered wrong; he also discharged all prisoners in London confined for debts under forty shillings, and he distributed alms among the poor. But all this was probably not from genuine repentance, but from fear of punishment for his avarice in a future state; for, as he grew better, and that future state again appeared distant, his greediness for money returned, and he went on wringing fresh sums from his subjects to add to his already immense treasures. Sometimes wealthy people were prosecuted under frivolous pretences, and compelled to pay enormous fines; and if they refused to pay were thrown into the Tower. At length, however, Henry's illness assumed so serious a character as to leave him no hope of recovery; and then he again began to think of repentance, and in his last hours drew up a will, wherein he enjoined his successor to repair the injuries he had committed, and make restitution to the victims he had plundered. But even in his penitence his love of a good bargain remained unaltered; and when he ordered 2000 masses to be said for his soul, he stipulated that they should only cost sixpence a-piece. On the 21st of April, 1509, he died, at his new palace of Richmond, and he was buried in the magnificent chapel that he had built in Westminster Abbey.

Henry VII. was personally brave, and possessed a sound judgment and excellent talents for government; but his reign consists of little else than an uninterrupted series of stratagems, intrigues, treachery, and craft; for which doubtless his character and habits were chiefly to blame, but which did nevertheless partly arise from the difficulties he had to contend with in establishing himself on the throne. The clemency he displayed in pardoning rebels shows him not to have been of a cruel temper; but he did not hesitate to shed blood where his interest was concerned, as appears from his putting to death the young Earl of Warwick for no other offence than his claims on the throne. His talents were employed only to serve selfish purposes, and his avarice predominated over every other feeling. It was in this reign that America was discovered by Columbus; and Henry, wishing to have some share in an enterprise that seemed likely to be so profitable, commissioned a Venetian named Sebastian Cabot to go out on a voyage of discovery; which was successful, for Cabot discovered the whole coast of North America, from Labrador to Florida.

HENRY VIII.

Henry, Prince of Wales, now ascended the throne, to the joy of the whole nation; for people are generally willing to hope that young sovereigns possess the virtues that have been found wanting

in their predecessors. He was proclaimed on the 22nd of April, and on the 3rd of June following married the Infanta Catherine, and was crowned with her on the 24th of the same month. His early conduct as a monarch endeared him to the nation, as he ordered Dudley and Empson, the instruments of his father's extortions, to be put to death, and in some cases restitution to be made to those who had suffered from them. This gave great satisfaction to the people, and they were scarcely less delighted with Henry's profuse expenditure.

It is a common observation that the son of a miser is a spendthrift, and the new king's conduct tended to verify it. He dipped deeply into his father's coffers for the expenses of his coronation, and still deeper for the jousts, tournaments, and banquets with which he entertained himself and his court; and of course, when he found these hoards diminishing, he called upon his subjects to replenish them.

The first application Henry made to his Parliament was in the year 1512 for the means of supporting a war with France, which had no other cause than his desire for military glory. He had thought proper to make a demand on Louis XII. for the cession of the provinces of Anjou, Maine, Normandy, and Guienne, which he called his "lawful inheritance;" and when this was refused, he desired to raise an army to support his pretensions. A war with France was still popular with the nation, and sufficient supplies were granted to enable him to undertake the expedition in a manner that promised success, especially as France was not threatened by Henry alone, for Ferdinand of Arragon and the Swiss were at the same time preparing to invade it from other quarters. The French monarchy appeared, indeed, to be in a most perilous position, but the errors of its assailants procured its safety. When Henry entered France with his army in the year 1513 he found that Ferdinand had made peace with Louis: and, instead of then connecting his plans with those of the Swiss, he loitered at Calais, while his generals besieged the small town of Terouenne.

At last, however, he came to the camp; but he seems, when there, to have been chiefly occupied with dressing himself and his nobles in silk and gold and all the finery that could be mustered, to make a figure in the eyes of the Emperor Maximilian of Germany, who now came to Henry, and flattered his vanity by professing to serve under him, and by receiving pay from him of 100 crowns a day. The Emperor brought no troops with him, though he had had 120,000 crowns from the English treasury to raise them.

After a battle, in which a strange sort of panic seized the French forces, the garrison of the town capitulated, and marched out, while the town itself was dismantled and burnt. Tournay also

was subsequently captured; but by this time the Swiss had concluded a treaty with the King of France, and Henry, after having seen very little fighting and spent a great deal of money in dress and tournaments, &c., returned home, well satisfied with his exploits.

In the meantime there had been war nearer home. In the month of August, James, King of Scotland, invaded England, and the Earl of Surrey having marched to oppose him, a battle was fought at Flodden Hill, an offshoot from the Cheviots, in which the King of Scotland and most of his nobles were killed. Henry might now, it has been thought, have perhaps reduced that kingdom to subjection; but he granted peace to his sister Margaret, the Queen of Scotland, and she was appointed regent during the infancy of her son. About the same time he made peace with Louis, King of France, and bestowed on him his sister Mary in marriage.

Henry greatly preferred pleasure to business of any kind; he had "as little inclination to it," says an old writer, "as a wild ox has to be yoked to the plough;" but there was a man in his court who was of a different temperament, and who was really more king of England at this time than Henry. This man was Thomas Wolsey, the son of a wealthy butcher of Ipswich; he had studied at Oxford, and on account of his early attainments had acquired the name of the "Boy bachelor."

For some time he taught the grammar-school adjoining Magdalen College, and afterwards the children of the Marquis of Dorset, who procured for him the rectory of Lymington and introduced him to the notice of Bishop Fox; who in his turn recommended him to Henry VII., by whom he was employed in affairs of great importance, and always acquitted himself well. Upon the death of Henry a struggle for supremacy took place between Bishop Fox and the Earl of Surrey (afterwards Duke of Norfolk); and the bishop, to counteract his opponents' influence, introduced Wolsey to the new king. Wolsey, who could change his hue like the chameleon, supplanted both the rivals, and soon acquired more influence and power at court than they had possessed between them. Though nearly twenty years older than the king, he adopted all his tastes and habits of life, sung, laughed, danced, and caroused with him, and thus delighted Henry, who was also well aware of his talents for business.

On the taking of Tournay he was made bishop of that see, then Dean of York, then Bishop of Lincoln, and then Archbishop of York, all within one year. Foreign sovereigns courted him; the Pope Leo X. made him a cardinal and Papal legate; when the chancellorship of England became vacant it was given to him, and finally also the archbishopric of Canterbury. Wealth poured in upon him, and he assumed in his living a style of princely splendour. As he did not hoard his wealth, he was less envied by the nation

than might have been expected; and though the absolute minister of an absolute master, was popular with the people, till Henry's extravagance, and consequent want of money, obliged him to overtax them.

As chancellor he dispensed strict justice: he repressed with a strong hand the arbitrary power of the aristocracy; he improved the police, encouraged men of learning, and exerted himself for the revival of classical literature; while in his largesses to the people and his alms to the poor his liberality was almost unbounded. Faulty as his character was, the home government of Wolsey was a blessing to the country.

In the year 1517 Francis I., now King of France, gained a great victory over the Swiss at Milan, and the military fame which he acquired beyond the Alps excited the jealousy of Henry. Wolsey recommended him to form an alliance with the Emperor Maximilian in order to drive the French from Italy; but as Henry had not then money enough to put the plan in execution, it was abandoned, and instead of it a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, formed between the French and English kings.

When indeed, not long after, the Emperor Maximilian died suddenly and Henry and Francis became candidates for the vacant dignity of the imperial throne, it was feared that the rivalship might interrupt the newly formed harmony; but a third competitor arose in the person of Charles of Austria, King of Spain, and grandson of the late Emperor, and he carried off the prize; which event seems to have preserved peace.

The real struggle had lain between Charles and Francis, as neither of them had much feared Henry's succeeding; and they now both courted him, each endeavouring to gain over him and his powerful and clever minister. Francis declared that Henry had promised him a personal interview, and desired that it should now take place; but while Henry, whose pride was much gratified by the eagerness of the two monarchs to secure his friendship, was preparing to cross the Channel, news arrived that Charles was on the English coast, and about to pay him a visit.

Wolsey, who had in fact contrived this visit, was sent with a splendid train to meet the imperial guest. The Emperor was hospitably entertained by Henry; and though he could not now prevent the interview with Francis from taking place, he endeavoured to prevent any evil consequence from it, by making Henry splendid presents, and promising to support Wolsey in the design he had long entertained on the Papal crown.

On his departure Henry, with the cardinal, the queen, and the whole court, sailed for Calais, and on the 4th of June removed to

Guisnes; near which, at a place called Ardres, within the English territory, he met Francis.

Tents of silk and cloth of gold were erected for the two courts; from which circumstance, as well as from the magnificence of the dresses, the meeting became known by the name of the "Field of the Cloth of Gold."

The ceremonies of the meeting were regulated by Wolsey, and were at first in strict conformity to court etiquette; but this formality did not please the lively Francis, and he resolved to meet Henry on more familiar terms.

Early one morning he rode to the English quarters, attended only by a page and two gentlemen, and entering Henry's tent while he was still in bed, told him playfully that he was now his prisoner. Pleased by this mark of confidence, Henry leaped from his bed, and thanked him; and from that time the intercourse between the two courts was more familiar. Before this there had been jousts and tournaments, the ladies acting as judges; now there was "masking and mumming," banquets and balls, in which the two kings and the ladies played their parts. After a fortnight spent in this gay style Henry returned to Calais, and Francis to his capital.

In the course of this interview Francis agreed to pay a high price for the neutrality of England in the approaching war with Charles; and he renewed a recent marriage treaty by which it was agreed that his infant son should be married to Henry's infant daughter Mary.

Henry did not intend, however, to forfeit the friendship of the Emperor, and as soon as the meeting with the French king was over, hastened to Gravelines to pay him a visit; and Charles afterwards returned with him to Calais, where he spent three days, and then rode back to his Flemish dominions on "a brave horse covered with cloth of gold richly beset with stones," a gift from Henry. After a few days the English king returned to London, "all safe in body, but empty in purse;" and the chief result of this boasted Field of the Cloth of Gold was the ruin of many of both the French and English nobility, who, in their insane rivalry, contracted debts they were never able to pay; and although in those times it was dangerous to oppose or even criticise the tastes of the king, there were some men bold enough even then to express their disapprobation of these ruinous follies.

One of the boldest of these censors was Edward Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, a descendant of the ancient line of the Plantagenets, and one of the richest men in England.

Between him and Wolsey a mutual enmity subsisted; and soon after Henry's return an accusation of treason was brought against

Buckingham, and, though the charges were both frivolous and untrue, he was found guilty, and beheaded on Tower Hill.

While the innocent blood of Buckingham was still fresh on him, Henry set himself up as a defender and champion of the church. The doctrines of Luther, the great German Reformer, were about this time eagerly embraced in England; and while Wolsey was issuing orders to seize all the heretical books, his master the king was undertaking to refute them. He composed, with the assistance of his bishops and the learned Sir Thomas More, a treatise called the "Defence of the Seven Sacraments," which he presented to the Pope, Leo X., who declared he found it "sprinkled with the dew of ecclesiastical grace," and that he rendered thanks to God for having inspired the king to write it for the defence of the blessed faith; and, in confirmation of this opinion, he bestowed on Henry and his successors the proud title of "Defender of the Faith."

While Henry was busy with his authorship the Emperor Charles and the King of France were engaged in war.

Francis sought the aid of Henry; but Henry, though he sent Wolsey to negotiate with Francis, finally resolved to assist the emperor. Between these two and the Pope a league was formed at Calais to check the ambition of Francis by attacking his dominions all at once from different quarters, and it was also settled that the projected marriage between the Dauphin and the Princess Mary should be set aside, and the princess married to Charles. Soon after this Pope Leo died, and Adrian was chosen as his successor; and since the Emperor Charles had broken his promise of supporting Wolsey's pretensions, it was thought the cardinal would have brought about a rupture between them.

This, however, was not the case; for in the spring of 1822 the emperor again visited Henry, by whom he was hospitably entertained.

In the summer of the same year an English army, commanded by the Earl of Surrey, was sent into France; but the season was far advanced when the campaign commenced, and he found it necessary to retreat without having once met the enemy.

Francis retaliated on Henry by stirring up a rebellion in Ireland and exciting the Scots to rise against Henry's sister Margaret; but these insurrections were soon put down, and the next year another English army invaded France, this time under the Duke of Suffolk. It had no better success, however, than its predecessor; and though the English people were heavily taxed for the aid afforded to Charles, no real assistance was ever given to him. He triumphed, indeed, but it was by the force of his own arms and not by the aid of the English.

In the year 1525 Henry became jealous of the success of the

emperor, and entered into a treaty with Francis to check his victorious progress; but, from his habits of lavish expenditure, Henry's finances were in so wretched a condition, that he could do very little, and was of no more use to this ally than he had been to the last; moreover, he now became involved in a quarrel with the Church of Rome, which left him neither time nor inclination to interfere in any other, so the emperor and the king fought on till they were both exhausted by the war, and then they signed a treaty of peace.

A very few years after the Pope had conferred on Henry the title of "Defender of the faith" the Church of Rome found in him a powerful enemy.

It was, however, from no love of truth that he was led to his opposition, but for the gratification of his own evil passions. He had taken a liking to a beautiful young woman named Anne Boleyn, one of the maids of honour, and desired to marry her; but to do this it was necessary to divorce his wife Queen Catherine. He therefore declared he thought this marriage had been an unlawful one, as Catherine had previously been married to his brother, and with some difficulty he induced his own clergy to pronounce the divorce; but the Pope (Clement, who had now succeeded Adrian) refused to confirm the decision, and thereupon Henry set the Pope at defiance, divorced the queen, and married Anne Boleyn.

This step was followed by a complete rupture with Rome. On the one hand the Pope excommunicated Henry; while on the other the English Parliament prohibited every kind of payment to the Pope and acknowledgement of papal authority; confirmed Henry's title of supreme head of the Church; and vested in him alone the right of appointing to all bishoprics, and of deciding in all ecclesiastical causes.

During the rest of this reign the Catholic clergy were plundered, persecuted, and hanged without mercy, and at the same time, to prove his orthodoxy, Henry persecuted the Protestant Reformers, the Lollards, with equal fury. The fires blazed for either at the dictation of his caprice and savage humour. After the marriage of Henry to Anne Boleyn in 1533, Queen Catherine went to live at Ampthill near Dunstable; but subsequently retired to Kimbolton, where she died of grief in 1536. Her fall involved that of another, the king's long tried and faithful servant Wolsey. He had been willing that Henry should be divorced from Catherine out of hatred, it was supposed, to the Emperor Charles, who had deceived him about the popedom; but he had wished his master to marry a French princess, and not Anne Boleyn; and when he found the king determined on this course, he sided with the Pope, and opposed the divorce. Henry immediately withdrew his favour

from him; and though Wolsey declared that the loss of the royal favour was like the withdrawal of the bright sun from the heavens, and sought its restoration even by transferring to Henry his entire personal estate, he could not appease his "gracious master's" resentment. He was arrested at Cawood near York, on a charge of high treason, but he was never brought to trial; for while on his road to London he was seized with a mortal sickness, and died in Leicester Abbey. Among his last words were these: "Had I but served my God as diligently as I have served my prince, he would not have forsaken me in the days of my grey hairs." His successor in the favour of Henry was Cranmer, through whose means chiefly the divorce had been brought about, and who was now appointed Archbishop of Canterbury and Primate of all England. Cranmer had been a member of the college of Jesuits at Cambridge; but he was at this time zealously devoted to the cause of the Reformation.

Another name introduced into history by these events was that of Thomas Cromwell, the son of a blacksmith, and who had been in the service of Wolsey. On the fall of his patron Cromwell played his part so well at court, that he was not only confirmed in the stewardship of the lands of some monasteries dissolved by Wolsey, but also made secretary of state. Cromwell had been employed in the dissolution of these monasteries, and on his exaltation he was empowered to send commissioners into the several counties of England, to inspect those remaining, and to report the conduct and deportment of the residents therein. The clergy hated Cromwell, Cromwell hated the clergy, Henry wanted money; and the result was such as might have been expected. The commissioners reported that in all the monastic establishments of the kingdom vice and immorality prevailed; and by the year 1540 they were all suppressed, and their gold and silver shrines, with their landed property, shared by Henry and his courtiers and parasites. In the same period many monks were condemned for what was called high treason, namely, because they would not proclaim in their churches and chapels that the Pope was Antichrist; and Bishop Fisher and the great and good Sir Thomas More were beheaded because they would not subscribe to the Act of Supremacy recently passed by Parliament. These murders spread a panic throughout the nation; and in all foreign countries where civilisation had made any progress they excited universal execration.

It is said that Anne Boleyn exulted when she heard of the death of Catherine, and boasted that she was now indeed a queen, little thinking that she herself was already doomed. Henry had now cast his eyes on one of her maids of honour, and Anne was therefore

accused of adultery; and though on her trial her innocence was made clear, she was condemned, and in a few days beheaded on the green in the Tower. On the following morning Henry married Anne's maid of honour Jane Seymour, his cruel heart rejoicing over the fate of one whom he had so lately declared the object of his warmest affections. In the short interval between her sentence and execution Henry demanded a divorce; and even Cranmer, who had been chiefly instrumental in making Anne Boleyn queen, and who probably in his heart believed her innocent of the crime imputed to her, pronounced that her marriage was, and always had been, null and void, in consequence of certain just and lawful impediments. After her death the process was submitted to the Convocation, and the two Houses of Parliament, and the Church, Lords, and Commons confirmed it, thereby cutting off Anne's infant daughter Elizabeth from the succession.

In the year 1536, while the work of spoliation was being carried forward, and the king was continually issuing decrees in matters of religion, an insurrection broke out in Lincolnshire, which spread throughout Yorkshire, Durham, Northumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. Nothing seemed wanting but a proper leader and courage and resolution in the noblemen and gentry to overthrow Henry's tyrannical government. At one time the insurgents were estimated at 40,000; and they gave a religious character to their rising, and bound themselves by oath to stand by each other, for the love which they bore to Almighty God, his faith, and the Holy Church. They painted on their banners the figure of Christ in his agony; they wore upon their sleeves the emblem of the five wounds of the Saviour, with the name of Jesus; and they called their march "The Pilgrimage of Grace." Wherever they advanced they restored the monks and nuns to their houses, and by threats they compelled the people to take the oaths and enter their ranks.

Many noblemen joined the insurgents, and many cities admitted the Pilgrims of Grace, and took the vows. Demands were made by them of the king; but there were traitors in the camp, and early in the spring of 1537, "every man doubting the good faith of his captain," on being threatened by a royal army, returned to his home. Lord Darcy, Robert Aske, and most of the original leaders of the insurrection were taken and executed; and it was not till the north of England had been converted into a shambles, and the pleasant banks of the Tweed, the Tyne, the Tees, the Don, and the Trent had been made actually loathsome with dead bodies and ghastly heads, that pardon was proclaimed. Even then the persecution of the monks continued. Prisons throughout the country became crowded with them and their priors, and they died so rapidly in their places of confinement, as to excite dreadful suspicions.

At the same time the Lollards also experienced the tyrant's vengeance, for Henry was alike the enemy of Romanism and Lollardism, conceiving that he was entitled to regulate, by his own single opinion, the religious faith of the whole nation.

During the year 1537 Jane Seymour died in childbed, after having given birth to a son, who was named Edward, and created Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall, and Earl of Chester. After her death Henry, incensed by the recent insurrection, proceeded with still greater vigour in the spoliation of the monasteries and the persecution of his subjects, be they of what faith they might. So depressed were the clergy by his iron rule, that few of them even had the means of subsistence; and patrons of livings frequently gave them to their menials, their gardeners, or the keepers of their hawks and hounds, for wages or rewards, or otherwise they let in fee both glebe and parsonage, so that the person presented to the living had no land or house to live in. Parish priests, in some instances, even kept ale-houses; thus uniting the more profitable calling of a tapster to that of a preacher of the Gospel. Even Miles Coverdale, who translated the first complete English Bible,—the greatest achievement of the age, and the measure that most effectually promoted the Reformation,—was left in great poverty. Henry was, it was said, "much prone to reformation;" but this arose from his desire to possess the wealth of the church; and it was no sooner possessed than it was lavished away. In the end, indeed, the king even demanded, and received from Parliament, compensation for the expenses he declared he had incurred in reforming the religion of the state!

Henry remained a widower up to 1540, when he was married to the Princess Anne of Cleves. This match had been promoted by Cromwell; and it was hoped that, as Anne was a Protestant, Henry's union with her would have the effect of finishing his conversion. The union, however, proved fatal to Cromwell himself. Hans Holbein had taken the likeness of Anne of Cleves; and when the king saw the performance of his favourite artist, he admired it so much, that he fancied himself in love with the original. But the original unfortunately differed greatly from the picture, and when Henry first met Anne he shrunk back from her with dismay; and though he at last consented to marry her, lest he should give offence to the princes of the Protestant Confederacy, it was clear that he would not be satisfied with the union. It was not long after his marriage with Anne of Cleves that Lady Catherine Howard, who was as decided a Papist as Anne was a Protestant, was introduced to Henry, at the house of Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester; that prelate and his party hoping that her charms would make an impression upon him. The device succeeded;

Henry was captivated: Cromwell was executed as a traitor; Anne of Cleves was divorced; and Catherine Howard became Queen of England. With Cromwell fell Doctor Barnes, who was burnt alive as a heretic, with two others named Garret and Jerome, while at the same time three Catholics were hanged and quartered for denying the king's supremacy. Anne of Cleves was in danger of destruction; but she escaped by submitting entirely to the king's will and pleasure.

Henry at first thought himself happy in his new marriage; he was never so happy before, he said; and he pronounced Lady Catherine to be the most perfect of women and most affectionate of wives. When, however, he had lived with her little more than a year, his faith in the virtue of his wife was suddenly annihilated by Cranmer, who, on his return from a progress in the northern counties, brought a tale to his master which, it was said, "struck him dumb, and even drew tears from his eyes;" and after witnesses had been examined, and confessions extorted from the lips of Catherine herself, she also, in February, 1542, was brought to the scaffold; and Lady Rochford, who had borne false testimony against Anne Boleyn, perished with her, as a participator in her immoralities. It would appear, however, that these immoralities were committed *before* and not *after* her union with Henry; but it was enacted in the bill of attainder against Catherine, that all persons who concealed their knowledge of the incontinence of any future queen, whether before or after marriage, should be considered guilty of high-treason!

For nearly eighteen months after the death of Catherine Howard Henry devoted his time to divinity and politics. At this period there were various sects in England, Anabaptists, Antinomians, Arians, Unitarians, Libertines, and others of still stranger names, some native and some foreign. These sects were hostile to each other, and Henry was hostile to them all. "Behold," said he, in a speech in Parliament, "what love and charity is among you, when the one calleth another Anabaptist, and he calleth him again Papist, hypocrite, and Pharisee! Alas! however can the poor souls live in concord, when you preachers sow amongst them in your sermons debate and discord? Of you they look for light, and ye bring them to darkness." Yet Henry set the worst example of what he condemned; declaring himself to be God's vicar and high minister on earth, he sought, by his laws and writings, to rule despotically the faith of the nation; and when these failed he had recourse to the fire and the sword. At this time, however, the fury of persecution was somewhat allayed; for seeing that indiscriminate execution was done upon Papists and Protestants alike, they ceased to inform against each other. During the last four years of this reign

only twenty-four persons were put to death for religion; fourteen of these being Protestants, and ten Papists. The names of some of these will occur in the following paragraph.

In the year 1543 Henry was married to his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, widow of Neville, Lord Latimer; and it is said that Catherine was well versed in the new learning, and a sincere convert to the Christian faith: but it is quite certain that, while Protestants rejoiced at the union, three of that body were burnt alive in Smithfield only sixteen days after the marriage. How Catherine Parr escaped destruction is almost miraculous; and indeed she was several times in imminent danger. At this period of the reign of Henry the court had become entirely changed; all pageantries and gaieties were banished from it, and men and women gave themselves up to polemics. Catherine ventured to read some of the works of the Reformers, which had recently been prohibited; and as the king, who had been long afflicted, grew worse and worse, she even dared to dispute with him upon faith and doctrine. Henry was exasperated: "A good hearing this," he exclaimed, "when women become such clerks; and a thing much to my comfort to come, in mine old age, to be taught by my wife." And he ordered Bishop Gardiner and Wriothesley the chancellor to prepare articles of impeachment against her; but Catherine was warned in time, and adroitly escaped the danger. On the next evening, when the subject of religion was, as usual, introduced, she spoke submissively of the inferiority of her own understanding, and of the great blessing she enjoyed in having so learned a prince for her husband and instructor. "Not so, by St. Mary," exclaimed Henry: "I know you, Kate; you are become a doctor." Catherine replied, that he had mistaken her meaning and her motive: she had ventured to argue with his grace, but it was only to amuse him, as she had seen that, in the heat of religious controversy, he would forget his bodily pains. "Ah!" replied Henry, "Is it so, sweetheart? then we are friends again;" and on the following day, when Wriothesley came, with forty men of the guard, to take Catherine into custody, Henry called him knave, fool, and beast, and dismissed him. But, if Catherine escaped, the ladies through whose agency the books had been introduced at court were much less fortunate. Anne Askew, who attempted to convert several of the ladies about the court, giving them books and tracts, was put to the rack, and perished at the stake in Smithfield; and three others perished with her: John Lascelles, a gentleman of the royal household, who did not believe in transubstantiation: Nicholas Belerium, a Shropshire clergyman: and John Adams, a tailor of London, who had also offended against some of the six articles. A nobler victim on the other side perished soon after on the scaffold; namely, the accom-

plished and poetical Earl of Surrey, who was falsely accused of aspiring to the throne. His father, the Duke of Norfolk, was sentenced to the same fate, but was saved by the death of Henry.

Henry had now been for some time approaching fast towards his end. An old issue in his leg had become an inveterate ulcer; and the pain he endured, added to his great corpulency, which rendered him unable to stir, made him furious as a chained lion. Several persons had been put to death for saying that he was dying or likely to die; and in his last hours those about him were afraid to tell him of his condition. On the approach of certain symptoms the physicians wished his courtiers to warn him of his true state; but they all hung back in affright, like unarmed men in the presence of a wounded and dying beast of prey. At length Sir Anthony Deny undertook the task: and going direct to the bedside, told him that the hope of human help was vain, and recommended him to turn his thoughts to Heaven. Henry still wished to live; but finding that his physicians had no hope, he submitted to the hard law of necessity. In reflecting upon the course of his life he owned he found much to give him uneasiness; but he still professed himself confident that, through Christ, all his sins would be pardoned. In his last moments he was speechless; and when Cranmer desired him to give some sign of his dying in the faith of Christ, he grasped his hand as hard as he could, and immediately expired. He died A.D. 1547, after having lived fifty-five years and seven months, and reigned thirty-seven years, nine months, and six days.

A catalogue of the vices of Henry would comprehend many of the worst qualities incident to human nature. In the course of his reign he caused the deaths of some thousands of innocent persons,—queens, nobles, ecclesiastics, and the common people all sharing in the same fate. Yet, by a mysterious decree of Providence, it had been ordained that the tyrannical reign of Henry should become a blessing to the country. A less arbitrary disposition than his would probably not have succeeded in shaking off the degrading domination of the see of Rome. But though Henry may be said to have laid the first stone of the Reformation, the solid erection of that precious edifice belongs to a later period; he commenced the work; but its completion was left for holier and wiser men.

EDWARD VI.

A few weeks before his death Henry had made a will, by which he left his crown first to Prince Edward, then to the Lady Mary, and next to the Lady Elizabeth. When the crown descended

upon the head of Edward he was not quite ten years of age; and in his will his father had ordered that sixteen executors and twelve counsellors should administer the affairs of the kingdom and superintend his education during his minority. Henry expected that his directions would have been implicitly obeyed; but at the first meeting of the executors after his death they showed their contempt of them by making Lord Hertford, the young king's eldest uncle, Duke of Somerset and protector of the kingdom. When this was done the new government turned their thoughts to burying the old and crowning the new king. Henry was buried in St. George's Chapel, Windsor, on the 16th of February; and four days afterwards Edward was crowned at Westminster Abbey. As usual, a general pardon for state offenders was proclaimed on this occasion; but the Duke of Norfolk was excepted, though his sentence of death was commuted to imprisonment.

The frame of government being thus settled, the attention of the protector was immediately called to foreign affairs. Francis, King of France, had died two months after the English monarch, and Henry II., his son and successor, who was under the control of the Duke of Guise and the Cardinal of Lorraine, the brothers of the Queen-dowager of Scotland, had entered into a close alliance with the Scots, in order to annoy and embarrass England. The Scottish government had taken up arms, and Henry now sent six galleys to assist the regent in reducing the castle of St. Andrews. The protector therefore collected an army for the invasion of Scotland; and by the end of August he set out for the north, at the head of about 20,000 men, of whom 6000 were cavalry. At the same time sixty-five vessels, of which thirty-five were ships of war, accompanied the expedition, under Lord Clinton. Somerset defeated the Scots with great slaughter near Musselburgh, and the fleet swept the sea of all Scottish vessels; but the protector, not deeming it expedient to follow up his victory, recrossed the borders, and returned to London.

The Duke of Somerset was a declared friend of the Reformation; and from the commencement of the reign the work of carrying it forward received his earnest attention. Associated with him in this great work were Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury; Holgate, Archbishop of York; Holbeck, Bishop of Lincoln; Goodwin, Bishop of Ely; and Ridley, who was appointed to the see of Rochester. The young Edward was greatly in favour of the Reformation; but his sister, the Princess Mary, generally looked upon as the heiress presumptive, was a zealous Catholic. Somerset and his adherents had to maintain their position against the envy and resentment of the whole faction of the ancient houses, and they were also opposed in their work by Bonner, Bishop of London. Gardiner,

Bishop of Winchester, and the mass of the people, who were likewise averse to the change. Under these circumstances, it was prudently resolved, by the advice of Cranmer, that the Reformation should be carried on by slow degrees, and that too much should not be hazarded at once. They commenced their work by a visitation of dioceses: visitors were sent into the several districts, invested for the time with supreme spiritual authority, and supplied with injunctions relating to a great variety of points of religious belief and worship, which they were to publish wherever they went, with intimation that the refusal or neglect to obey them would be punished with the pains of excommunication, sequestration, or deprivation. At the same time a collection of homilies was drawn up, which were required to be read in every church on Sundays and holidays; and every parish church in England was ordered to be provided with a copy of a translation, made for the purpose, of Erasmus's Paraphrase on the New Testament, as well as a copy of the English Bible. When Parliament met stronger measures were adopted to advance the cause of the Reformation. All the old laws against the Lollards, and all the new felonies created during the last reign were swept away; it was ordered that, in the sacrament of the Lord's supper, the cup should be delivered to the laity as well as the clergy; that appointments to bishopries should in future be made by direct nomination of the crown; and that all chantries, colleges, and free chapels, throughout the kingdom, which yet remained, should be confiscated. After the rising of Parliament Cranmer continued to urge on his ecclesiastical alterations with great activity. Orders were issued by the council prohibiting the carrying of candles on Candlemas-day, of ashes on Ash-Wednesday, or of palm on Palm-Sunday; denouncing imprisonment against whosoever preached without a licence from the king, the visitors, the Archbishop of Canterbury, or the bishop of the diocese in which he so preached; directing the removal of all images from churches and chapels; and ordering that there should be no elevation of the Host, and that the whole service should be in the English language. In the next Parliament, 1549, a bill passed allowing the marriage of the clergy; and a reformed liturgy, lately drawn up, was established. Against both these bills many of the bishops and some lay lords entered their protest, although Gardiner and Bonner had before been committed to the Tower for their opposition to the recent changes.

The Duke of Somerset was brave, inclined to good, and sincerely zealous in the cause of his young king and of the Reformation. Unfortunately, however, he had not sufficient firmness of purpose to keep in check the many enemies which his measures created. Among the many individuals offended by his proceedings was his

own brother Lord Seymour, a handsome and fascinating, but ambitious and somewhat dissolute man, who had married Catherine Parr, Henry VIII.'s widow, almost immediately after the king's death; and who, though he held the distinguished office of lord-high-admiral of England, aspired to the still higher post held by his brother. In his design he was aided by the artful and unprincipled Dudley, Earl of Warwick, one of the king's council. By Dudley's advice Lord Seymour proceeded from one step to another, until at length he went so far that his brother the protector, who had long been on bad terms with him, was enabled to accuse him of high treason, and have him committed to the Tower, and soon afterwards executed. His great offence really was that, after his wife Catherine Parr died, he aspired to the hand of Elizabeth; but he was also charged with abusing his authority and powers as lord-high-admiral, and spreading abroad sundry slanders touching the king's person, the lord-protector, and the whole council.

The death of Lord Seymour was followed by a summer of popular tumult and confusion. The whole country, from various causes, was in a state of excitement, disorder, and commotion. Strype says that the insurrection first appeared in Hertfordshire, Northall, and Cheshunt; and that from thence it proceeded into Gloucestershire, Wilts, Hampshire, Sussex, Surrey, Worcester, Essex, Kent, Oxfordshire, Berkshire, Yorkshire, and Norfolk. In some of these parts it was for religion that the people took up arms, while in others their turbulence arose from grievances affecting their worldly condition, and points of temporal politics. All these insurrections were put down; but they were attended with great loss of life and property.

It was asserted by some that these insurrections arose from the Duke of Somerset's misgovernment, though they do not appear to have been justly laid to his account; but he certainly showed no promptitude, decision, or ability, in encountering and putting them down. In this he was outshone by the Earl of Warwick, who, from the moment of their suppression, became his rival and competitor for the supreme power; and he was assisted in this by the Earl of Southampton, one of the council, who hated the protector, and did all he could to form a party against him. There were many vulnerable points in which Somerset might be assailed. The Scots, aided by France, were still in arms against England, and he had taken no active measures to suppress their hostility; he was rapacious to a degree which had shocked the public sense of decency as well as of justice; and he was ambitious, causing himself to be styled, in a patent he had obtained, authorising him to take possession of ecclesiastical manors, "Duke of Somerset by the grace of God," as if he had been a sovereign prince. At this time, too, he was building

a new palace for himself in London; and the erection of this splendid pile, which stood on the site where Somerset House now stands in the Strand, exposed its owner to the reflection that, while the king was surrounded with difficulties, the protector was bringing architects from Italy and designing such a palace as had not been seen before in England. It was while the public mind was thus excited against him that the Duke of Somerset was attacked by his enemies; and finding the coalition too powerful for him, the protector fled, taking the king with him from Hampton Court to Windsor. He first surrounded himself with an armed force, intending to set his enemies at defiance; but this bold resolution was soon set aside, and he wrote to the council at London, informing them, that if they intended no hurt to the king's person, he would agree to any reasonable conditions they might require. No notice was taken of this and other subsequent proposals; and at length, finding all negotiation hopeless, Somerset consented that a warrant should be sent to London to invite the council to come to Windsor. On their assembling there, however, twenty-eight articles were drawn up against himself, charging him with crimes and misdemeanours, and he was conveyed to the Tower; and a bill of pains and penalties was brought against him in the House of Lords, in 1550, the allegations in which were supported by a confession he had made during his confinement. He had submitted to this humiliation on an assurance being given that he should be dealt gently with if he confessed his errors; but the bill deprived him of all his offices, and forfeited all his personal property and 2000*l.* a year of his revenue from his lands; and it passed both Houses without opposition. Somerset was released from the Tower, and was afterwards restored to favour and sworn of the privy-council; but he was deprived of all power and authority.

By the fall of the protector the government was now placed in the hands of his rival Warwick, whose friend Southampton hoped to share the supreme authority with him; but, instead of this, he was removed from the council, and soon after died, either of vexation or by poison. Warwick also deceived others: he was thought to be in heart a Papist, and the popish party confidently expected that a large share in the management of affairs would now fall into their hands; but he forsook them, and made profession of a zeal for changes in the church that outran the views of most Protestants. For some time indeed the affairs of religion and of the church chiefly occupied the attention of government; these affairs being for the most part episcopal appointments, punishments of the clergy for contumacy, and persecutions for opinions in religion. No Papists were burned in this reign; but about this time one Joan Barber, or Joan of Kent, who held peculiar notions about the incarnation of Christ,

was executed as a heretic at Smithfield. It is recorded, to his honour, that the young king at first refused to sign the warrant for burning her; and that when he did so he shed tears, and told Cranmer, who urged him to the act, that if it was wrong he must answer for it to God.

It would have been well for Somerset if his ambition had not revived with his security. Soon after his liberation an apparent reconciliation took place between him and Warwick; the Lord Lisle, Warwick's eldest son, being married in the presence of the king to the Lady Ann, one of Somerset's daughters. It was impossible, however, that the fallen lord-protector, and the man who had supplanted him, could ever cease to be rivals, and Somerset entered into various intrigues to overthrow Warwick, who, in the midst of them, became Duke of Northumberland; and at length, in 1551, Somerset was sent to the Tower on a charge of having formed a design to raise an insurrection in the north; of attacking the train-bands on a muster-day; and of plotting to secure the Tower and to excite a rebellion in London. All these charges were denied by Somerset; but he seems to have confessed that he had plotted the deaths of Northumberland, Northampton, and Pembroke at a banquet given by Lord Paget; and upon this confession he was condemned and brought to the scaffold on Tower Hill. Several persons were apprehended as his accomplices, and Sir Miles Partridge, Sir Ralph Vane, Sir Michael Stanhope, and Sir Thomas Arundel were tried, convicted, and executed; all of them, however, with their last breath protesting their innocence. It was, in fact, generally believed that all this pretended conspiracy and the confession of the Duke of Somerset were mere forgeries.

In the year 1552 acts were passed in Parliament for enforcing throughout the realm the use of the book of Common Prayer, as recently amended; for maintaining the observance of fast-days and holidays marked in the calendar; for legalising the marriages of priests, and legitimatising their children; and for the relief of the poor, for which churchwardens were empowered to collect contributions and bishops were directed to proceed against those who refused to contribute. In the next Parliament (1553) the bishopric of Durham was suppressed, and two new dioceses were created in its stead; one comprehending the county of Durham, and the other that of Northumberland. At the same time Bishop Tunstall was deprived by a bill of pains and penalties, he being charged with having excited an insurrection in the north in concert with the late Duke of Somerset.

While the Duke of Northumberland was thus ruling with absolute sway a new prospect opened to his ambition. For some time

past the health of the young king had been in a very infirm state, and recently it had been visibly and rapidly declining. In this state of affairs, while Northumberland showed every solicitude for the young monarch, he made preparations also for the aggrandisement of his own family, having in view no less a prize than the crown. His son, the Lord Guildford Dudley, was by his means married to the Lady Jane Grey, daughter of Frances, Duchess of Suffolk, the only surviving child of the Princess Mary, daughter of Henry VII. By this union Northumberland proposed to bring the crown into his own family, securing it, in the first instance, for the head of his new daughter-in-law. The plan was unfolded to Edward; and Northumberland having made an alarming representation of the calamities which would befall the nation, should either of his sisters succeed him, the king agreed to have the succession submitted to the council; and it was entailed upon the Lady Jane Grey, the great seal being affixed on the instrument.

Edward survived the completion of this transaction only a few days. It is said that when his physicians declared his case hopeless, he was entrusted to the care of an ignorant woman who offered to undertake his cure; but under this woman's treatment he grew worse every day, and the physicians were recalled. He still continued to sink; and on the 6th of July, while engaged in prayer, he breathed his last, having lived fifteen years and reigned seven. He was regretted by his subjects, as his virtues had given a prospect of a glorious and happy reign.

MARY.

The Earl of Northumberland did not realise the object of his ambition. In placing on the throne the amiable and accomplished Jane Grey, and endeavouring to exclude the king's half-sisters Mary and Elizabeth, he neither consulted the sentiments of the people nor those of the chief men. The members of the council had pretended to concur in his views; but in heart they were, for the most part, opposed to his project; and this was soon discovered. Jane was indeed proclaimed queen by his faction in London, but Mary received the voluntary homage of the nation, and after a few days made her triumphant entry into the capital. Northumberland and other heads of the party were executed; and the innocent Jane and her young consort were first imprisoned in the Tower, and finally expiated the offence of her reluctant ten-days' reign upon the scaffold.

It might have been happy for the nation had Lady Jane Grey swayed the sceptre instead of Queen Mary, whose earliest acts of government showed what would be the nature of her rule. Mary

was in fact a fanatic Papist. she had been bred up among Romanists, and had been taught to prefer martyrdom to the denial of her belief. She was likely to abhor the Reformation for the sufferings it had brought on herself and her mother, since for her attachment to the Romish Church her father had alternately threatened to make her a nun and to take off her head; and persecution seems to have had its usual effect in confirming her in her religious belief, and at the same time causing her to resolve that, when she came into power, she would avenge on the reforming party what she considered the wrongs done on her own. Moreover, she had a deep conviction that the re-establishment of Popery would be pleasing to the Almighty. She was crowned in St. Peter's Church by Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, who had been imprisoned by Cranmer for contumacy; and at first Mary issued a declaration that she would constrain nobody in religious matters, but would only insist that her people should refrain from the offensive expressions of "heretic" and "Papist." This mask of toleration, however, was soon taken off: Cranmer, Latimer, and others were in November committed to the Tower; and, a few days after, Parliament by a single vote repealed the whole of the statutes in favour of the Reformation, and at once re-established Popery. Soon after, a convocation was summoned to settle once more all doubts and disputations concerning the sacrament of the Lord's Supper. By this convocation mass was restored; the book of Common Prayer was declared to be an abomination; the Reformed English Catechism was suppressed; and violent measures were recommended against all such of the clergy as would not dismiss their wives and adopt the Catholic opinion as to the real presence. About half of the English bishops, shrinking from the consequences of refusal, conformed to these momentous changes; and those who did not, or were obnoxious to the dominant party, were thrown into prison. Holgate, Archbishop of York, and Poynet, the Protestant Bishop of Winchester, were committed to the Tower for being married; Ridley, Bishop of London, for preaching at Paul's Cross in defence of Queen Jane's title, and for heresy. Hooper, Bishop of Worcester and Gloucester, with others, were deprived on similar charges; while Barlow, of Bath and Wells, and Bush, of Bristol, voluntarily resigned their seats. On the other hand, Gardiner, Bonner, Tunstall, Day, Heath, Vesey, and other Catholic bishops were restored to their sees; and in a little time there was scarcely a pulpit in the kingdom from which the doctrines of the Reformation were promulgated, Mary being resolved not only to re-establish the Romish Church, but to prevent the teaching and preaching of the reformed doctrine.

Early in the year 1554 a treaty of marriage was signed between

Queen Mary and Philip, Prince of Spain, son of the celebrated Charles V. This projected union was very alarming to the people, who had a frightful notion of the cruel bigotry and grasping ambition of the Spanish court; and insurrections broke out in Devonshire and Kent, which at one time threatened the stability of the throne. In Devonshire the insurgents were headed by Sir Peter Carew; and in Kent by Sir Thomas Wyatt, son of the poet of that name, who has been associated in renown with the Earl of Surrey. Neither of these leaders, however, received the support promised; and Sir Peter Carew was put to flight in the west, while Wyatt, who advanced to London, being deserted by most of his troops, was taken and conveyed to the Tower: in the end, about fifty officers, knights, and gentlemen, and several hundred common men were put to death. This insurrection also endangered the liberty of Mary's sister Elizabeth, although she was confined to the Tower, and had taken no part in it; and it was at this time that Lady Jane Grey and her husband suffered death, Mary being led to believe that the life of the unfortunate Lady Jane was incompatible with her own safety.

Mary was married to Prince Philip in the month of July; and it proved to be an ill-omened marriage for the nation, since Philip was as gloomy a bigot as Mary, though he was less anxious about the question of religion than he was about obtaining absolute power in England and aggrandisement on the Continent. His manners disgusted even the corrupt courtiers of Mary's court, although he distributed gold among them with a liberal hand.

Soon after the marriage of Mary, Cardinal Pole was sent over to England as legate; and through his persuasions the Parliament was induced to vote an address to Philip and Mary, acknowledging themselves repentant of the schism in which they had been living; declaring their readiness to repeal all laws enacted to the prejudice of the Holy Church; and imploring them and the lord cardinal to intercede with their Holy Father the Pope for their absolution and forgiveness. Pole at once gave the required absolution; and, in token of sincerity, the Parliament revived the old brutal laws against heretics, and enacted statutes against seditious words. But, though thus compliant in matters of faith, this Parliament not only refused to entertain a project proposed for Philip's coronation, but also to grant supplies to assist him and his father the emperor in the wars in which they were engaged with France.

The way was now prepared for persecution; and the year 1555 opened most gloomily for the Protestants. Ambassadors were sent to Rome to confirm the reconciliation of the nation with the Romish Church, and to concert measures for the promotion of the

old religion to the exclusion of all others. Mary, however, wanted no foreign advisers to urge her into the paths of intolerance and persecution, for the conviction was deeply settled in her mind that it was her duty to exterminate heretics. She had already many in her power; the prisons were crowded, and the inquisitors had only to choose their victims and light the fires. The revived statutes against heretics were to take effect from the 20th of January, and previous to this day Bonner, with eight bishops and 160 Romish priests, made a grand procession through London, to return thanks to the Almighty for the "sudden renewal of divine grace in the land!" "Coming events cast their shadows before;" and these shadows were followed by awful realities. Rogers, prebendary of St. Paul's, was the first victim; and his death was quickly followed by those of Ferrar, Bishop of St. David's; Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester; Dr. Rowland Taylor, rector of Hadleigh; Archbishop Cranmer, Ridley, Bradford, Latimer, and a numerous army of martyrs among the laity. For three years the fires of persecution blazed throughout the land; and from the martyrdom of John Rogers, in 1553, about six months after Mary's accession, to that of the five last victims who suffered in 1558, only seven days before her death, 208 individuals perished at the stake. Yet, after all, Protestantism spread, and every execution made converts and tended to awaken a lasting abhorrence of the Romish Church.

In the midst of her zeal Mary herself was one of the most wretched of women. She was hated by her own husband, who soon after the persecution commenced passed over to the Continent, and seldom even wrote to her, except when he wished to obtain money for his use from Parliament. In 1557 Philip became King of Spain and absolute lord of Naples, Sicily, the Milanese, the Low Countries, the Indies, and other fair and fertile countries. When thus exalted he paid Mary a short visit; but the object for which he visited her was to drive her and her council into a declaration of war against France. He obtained forces to aid him in his war, and he then took his departure: and, happily for England, never returned. But while the flower of the English troops was assisting him in Flanders a blow was struck against the English possessions on the Continent: Calais was captured by the Duke of Guise; an event which filled the whole kingdom with murmurs and the queen with despair; and at the same time the Scots, acting on the usual impulse from France, began to reappear upon the Borders. These complicated evils—a murmuring people; ill success in her endeavours to extirpate Protestantism; a disdainful, if not an unfaithful, husband; loss of dominion; the prospect of Elizabeth's succession; and other untoward events,—made fearful depredations on Mary's health. While thus weakened by

grief she was seized with a sickness which brought her to her grave; and she died on the 17th of November, 1558, after having reigned five years, four months, and eleven days, and lived a wretched life of forty-three years and nine months. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, had been laid in the tomb before; and within twenty-two hours of the queen's death Reginald Pole, cardinal-legate and Archbishop of Canterbury, expired at Lambeth, his death being a more fatal blow to the Romish Church than that of Mary, whose bigotry had in reality greatly advanced the cause of the Reformation.

From some writers it would appear that Mary, notwithstanding the fierce intolerance which she imagined her duty, was possessed of some good and generous qualities. She was, they say, sincere and high-minded, capable of lasting friendships, liberal to her domestics, and charitable to the poor. She was also noted for her acquirements; and besides her maternal and natural English, she was acquainted with the Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian languages, and the lighter accomplishments of embroidery, dancing, and music. But as queen these ornamental acquirements were useless: their insignificance is exhibited in the records of her miserable reign, and they are all lost sight of in the blood that was shed through her bigotry.

ELIZABETH.

Elizabeth, who had at one time been a prisoner in the Tower, and in imminent peril, was under close guardianship at Hatfield in Hertfordshire when she heard of her sister's death. She immediately repaired to London, where she was received with demonstrations of great joy; and when the demise of Mary was notified to the Parliament, the two Houses resounded with the acclamations of "God save Queen Elizabeth: long and happily may she reign!" She was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Sunday, the 15th of January, A. D. 1559.

Before the coronation Elizabeth had authorised the reading of the liturgy in English, and had shown a fixed determination to prevent the Romanists from relighting the fires of Smithfield; but at the same time she forbade the destruction of images, kept her crucifix and her holy-water in her private chapel, and prohibited all preaching on controversial points. She seemed herself to be halting between the two opinions; but this conduct was afterwards supposed to have been dictated by motives of policy. After her coronation, in conjunction with the Parliament, she hastened forward the work of Reformation: act after act was passed; and in a single session that form of religion was introduced which is the

Established Church of our nation at the present day. The pontiff Paul VI. may be said to have aided this good work; for when Elizabeth's accession was notified to him, he replied that he looked upon her as illegitimate, and that she ought to lay down the government and submit to his decision. This determined Elizabeth in the course she had contemplated pursuing; and before the end of the first year of her reign the English Church was lost for ever to the Papists. The change was rendered more memorable by the fact that, though Bonner and other Romish bishops had revelled in the blood of Protestant martyrs, no fagots were kindled to consume them. Some were imprisoned; but, after passing different periods in the Tower, they were released, and were quartered by government upon the Protestant bishops who had succeeded them, or upon rich deans or other dignified churchmen.

In the first year of Elizabeth's reign a treaty of peace was signed at Cateau Cambresis; by which it was agreed that Calais should be retained by the French king for eight years, and that at the end of that period it should be delivered to Elizabeth or her successor, upon certain conditions. Scotland, as the ally of France, was included in this treaty; but there was a cause of quarrel between Elizabeth and Mary of Scotland, which, if it did not lead to war, engendered strife. Mary laid claim to the crown of England as the granddaughter of Henry VII., representing the marriage of Anne Boleyn, Elizabeth's mother, as unlawful; and in a fatal moment for Mary she and her husband Francis, Dauphin of France, quartered the royal arms of England with their own, and even assumed the title of King and Queen of Scotland and England. Elizabeth was too refined a politician for Mary. Taking advantage of the divided state of Scotland, she formed a party there, which forced Mary to suspend her claim. But Elizabeth's party were Protestants, with whom Mary, devoted as she was to the Church of Rome, was at variance. In Scotland there were now many Reformers who considered the remaining quiet under the rule of Papists as a connivance with Satan; and when they preached they were surrounded by armed men, ready to do their bidding in all things. Thus, after John Knox had preached at Perth against the mass, idolatrous worship, and the adoration of saints and images, the people set to work at once and destroyed all the pictures, statues, marble fonts, &c., in the surrounding churches, and sometimes even the churches themselves. It was, in fact, a saying of John Knox, that the best way of preventing the crows from returning was to destroy their nests. Mary had no means of checking the destruction of the churches, and she was compelled to conclude a treaty with the Reformers. Neither party, however, regarded this treaty as binding, and in less than a month the destruction of the churches

recommenced: they fell almost as suddenly at the voices of the Reformers as the walls of Jericho at the trumpet of Joshua. Nearly the whole body of the Scottish nobility enrolled themselves under the banner of Knox; some from their dislike of the old superstitions, and others for the sake of plunder. Mary called in the aid of the French; but this only made matters worse. The Reformers sought and obtained aid from Elizabeth; and in the year 1560 Mary was obliged to sue for peace. A treaty was concluded at Edinburgh, which secured the triumphant supremacy of the Protestant party in Scotland; and at the same time, by a separate treaty, France recognised the right of Elizabeth to the crown, and agreed that Mary should no longer bear the title or the arms of England.

At the close of the year 1560 Mary's husband, who had recently become King of France, died; and by his death the English queen was freed from the perils attending the close union of Scotland and France, and from pretensions which, if urged with the whole power of the French monarchy, might have proved dangerous. Mary had resided in France from the sixth year of her age; but she returned to Scotland about six months after the death of her husband. On her return she found the Romanists, as a party, crushed; and she herself was compelled to issue proclamations of banishment against the monks and friars. Mary found herself indeed a prisoner among her own people, and she was constantly preached at by Scotland's fiery Reformers. Every pulpit and hill-side was made to shake with awful denunciations of God's vengeance against her as a Papist; and even before any circumstance had occurred calculated to throw suspicion on the propriety of her conduct she was openly called Jezebel in the pulpit.

It was in vain that Mary tried to win the favour of the Scottish Reformers. Their enmity to her for "hearing vile masses" daily grew stronger, and they only waited for some indiscretion on her part to break out into open opposition An opportunity, too, soon offered itself. In the year 1565 Mary married Henry, Lord Darnley, who was the son of her aunt the Lady Mary Douglas, and the grandson of Elizabeth's aunt Margaret Tudor. Darnley was in his twentieth year, well proportioned, and possessed of all the courtly accomplishments of the times. Queen Elizabeth had endeavoured to promote this match; but no sooner had it taken place than she appeared greatly displeased at it, and it served her as a pretext not only for refusing to acknowledge Mary's title to the succession of England, but for encouraging the discontents and rebellion of the Scottish nobility and clergy. The marriage of Darnley and Mary was followed by a series of dark plots and conspiracies, which ended in a fearful tragedy.

Mary had been at first allured by the youth, beauty, and exterior accomplishments of her husband; but she soon grew weary of them, and the qualities of his mind were little adapted to inspire affection. Violent, fickle, insolent, ungrateful, and addicted to low pleasures, he was incapable of any true sentiment of love and tenderness. Mary had, on her marriage with him, exalted him beyond measure; and had even taken the field for him herself against the Earl of Murray, clad in light armour, and carrying pistols at her saddle-bows. Her love, however, soon grew cold; and her admiration gave place to disgust. Enraged at her increasing coldness, Darnley pointed his vengeance against every person he supposed the cause of this change in her conduct. In her court was a person named David Rizzio, a musician, who was in such favour with her that he was consulted on all occasions, and without his intercession no favours could be obtained. Darnley was easily persuaded that Rizzio was the person who had estranged the queen's affections from him; and entered her closet with some lords of his party, by whom the hated favourite was assassinated in Mary's presence. Apprehensive of Mary's resentment, the conspirators detained her prisoner in her palace; but having seemingly forgiven her husband his share in the murder, she engaged him to escape with her to Dunbar. At Dunbar she collected an army; and, advancing to Edinburgh, obliged the conspirators to flee into England, while Darnley solemnly protested before the council that he was innocent of Rizzio's death.

While at Edinburgh Mary took the Earl of Bothwell, a nobleman of considerable power and influence, but of profligate manners, into her confidence, and at the intercession of Queen Elizabeth she granted the murderers of Rizzio a free pardon. Among these was Lord Morton, a man whom Darnley had good reason to dread; and on hearing that the queen had caused the privy-seal to be put to his pardon, he quitted Stirling Castle for Glasgow. While at Glasgow Darnley was seized with the smallpox; on which Mary first sent him her own physician, and then, when the infection had passed away, she went to visit him herself. A fresh reconciliation took place; but probably it was only in appearance. Darnley returned with Mary to Edinburgh, and while she resided at Holyrood House he was lodged, "for his health," in a lonely house called "The Kirk of Field." Mary here continued to treat him with kindness, daily visiting him, and sometimes sleeping in a chamber below his. In the month of February, 1567, however, about three hours after the queen's departure from him, the house in the Kirk of Field was destroyed by gunpowder, and the bodies of Darnley and his valet were found lying in the garden without any marks of violence on their persons. Suspicion immediately fell upon Bothwell; and it

was afterwards almost proved that the Queen, Morton, and others had been either accessories or participators in the deed with him.

Bothwell was tried for the murder of Darnley; but, through his own influence and that of the queen, he was acquitted. His acquittal, however, proved fatal both to himself and to Mary. A few days after, as the queen was on her route from Stirling Castle, she was seized by Bothwell, probably by her own connivance, and carried to the strong castle of Dunbar; and shortly after they were married, Bothwell having obtained a divorce from his own wife for that purpose. This caused a great commotion throughout the country; and an attempt made by Bothwell to get the young prince James, who was lodged in Stirling Castle with the Earl of Marr, into his hands, drove the nobles into open rebellion. Armies were raised on both sides, and they met at Carberry Hill, where Mary, deceived by promises, put herself into the power of the insurgents, who carried her as a prisoner to Edinburgh. Bothwell escaped to the coast of Norway, where he was taken by the Danish government, who considered him as a pirate, and threw him into the castle of Malmoe, where he is said to have gone mad and to have died a miserable death ten years after. Mary regained her liberty by resigning the crown to her son, who was proclaimed as James VI.; but finding it impossible to remain in her own kingdom, she resolved to take shelter in England. Elizabeth had often promised her a safe and honourable asylum; but she was unfaithful to her professions of friendship, — Mary on her arrival was made prisoner, and kept in confinement for eighteen years. During her imprisonment there were several attempts to rescue her; but these all failed, and only tended to render her captivity more severe. The last attempt to liberate Mary ended in her death. It was made by the enthusiastic Babington; and his plan appears to have embraced the assassination of Elizabeth. This having failed, Mary was accused, but upon very equivocal testimony, as an accomplice; a commission of forty men, most of whom were the enemies of Mary, was appointed to judge her, and she was condemned to death. Parliament urged the execution of this sentence; and though Elizabeth long seemed unwilling to sign the decree of death, she did so at last, and Mary was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle on the 8th of February, 1587, passing through her sufferings with such firmness and dignity as to excite sympathy and admiration even in those who believed her guilty.

During these events Elizabeth had been affording assistance to the Huguenots of France, who at this time were driven into rebellion by the bitter persecutions to which they were subjected.

This first of Elizabeth's continental wars was, however, unsuccessful, and she was compelled to give up the cause of the Protestants in France, and to conclude a fresh peace with the queen-regent Catherine de Medici. By this treaty of peace, which was signed at Troyes in April, 1564, Elizabeth delivered up the hostages which the French had given for the restoration of Calais; and the questions of the surrender of Calais and other matters were left in the state they were in before hostilities had commenced.

Elizabeth's transactions with Spain, which formed the main business of her government, brought greater glory to her reign than her wars with France. Various causes combined to make Philip, the husband of her predecessor Mary, her most deadly enemy. When the death of his queen had been announced to him by Elizabeth, that monarch, regardless of canonical laws, had made her an instant offer of his hand. At that time Elizabeth was anxious to recover Calais through his means, and was still involved in a war both with France and Scotland on his account; and as it would have been dangerous to have given him any offence at this moment, she gave Philip a certain degree of hope. He found, however, in the end, that Elizabeth had never intended to marry him; and this gave him great offence. In the year 1568 Elizabeth, by a proceeding certainly of very questionable morality, gave deadly provocation to the powerful Philip. A Spanish squadron of five sail, carrying stores and money for the payment of Philip's army in the Low Countries, where he was carrying on war, took refuge on the English coast, to escape a French Protestant fleet which had been fitted out by the Prince of Condé. Elizabeth was then at peace with Spain; but as the money was destined for the support of those who were bent upon destroying a brave people, professing the same religion as her own subjects, and as, moreover, she wanted money, the specie was seized upon pretence that it did not belong to the King of Spain but to certain Italian bankers and money-lenders, who had exported it upon speculation. Philip retaliated by seizing all the goods and imprisoning the persons of the English merchants in Flanders: and Elizabeth then laid hands on a packet addressed to the Spanish ambassador; closed and sealed up the warehouses of all the subjects of his Spanish Majesty; and sent out ships to close the Straits of Dover, and seize whatever they could. These measures were followed by a series of outrages on both sides: English ships were put to sea with permission to take and plunder the ships of France as well as Spain; and corsairs, under the French and Spanish flags, pillaged English merchantmen and occasionally committed depredations on the English coast. The courts of France and

Spain encouraged the attempts mentioned as being made to liberate Mary and dethrone Elizabeth; which encouragement was probably the chief inducement to the latter to sign the unfortunate Mary's death-warrant. The causes of rupture between England and Spain became multiplied: commissioned buccaneers, such as Drake and Hawkins, followed a system of plundering from 1570, through several successive years, in the West Indies, in Spanish America, and in the Pacific. Drake in the course of three expeditions plundered the Spanish towns of Nombra de Dios and Carthagena, and nearly all the towns on the coasts of Chili and Peru; destroyed or captured an immense number of Spanish ships; and returned from each voyage with great booty. At the same time Elizabeth furnished aid to the people of the Netherlands against Philip; first covertly, and then openly. In the year 1585 the Earl of Leicester, who had been a great favourite with Elizabeth, but whose favour he had lost on his marriage with the Countess of Essex, was sent to the Netherlands with an army; and though he did not prove formidable to the forces of Philip, the expedition increased that monarch's resentment. His greatest affair of arms was an attack upon Zutphen, which failed, and which was chiefly memorable for the death of the gallant and accomplished Sir Philip Sidney.

At length, in 1586, there was a rumour that the King of Spain was preparing to invade England, and that some Catholic plot was about to be revealed at home. In the autumn of this year a plot *was* discovered, at the head of which was Anthony Babington, a young English Papist, who had been brought to consider that it would be glorious in this world, and acceptable in the next, if he could assassinate Elizabeth and establish Mary on her throne. This conspiracy was discovered by an accomplice, named Pooley; and Babington, with several others, all young men of fortune and acquirements, were taken and executed. This conspiracy, as before related, led to the death of Mary, and Mary's death was followed by an open war with Spain. Philip, exasperated by the expeditions of Drake and others to the West Indies, branded Elizabeth as a murderess, and animated his people with a desire of vengeance. On discovering this, Elizabeth made some politic efforts to disarm his resentment; but it was all in vain, — no sacrifices could set aside his purpose, and every wind brought news of the great naval and military operations going on in Spain and Portugal.

While Elizabeth was negotiating she dispatched Sir Francis Drake with a small fleet of thirty vessels with orders to destroy all the Spanish ships he could find in their own harbours; and he did destroy accordingly more than 100, and his exploits tended to delay the operations of Philip and to give Elizabeth time to prepare for

her defence. It is said that the mischief done by Drake caused the death of Santa Cruz, the best sailor of Spain, who had been destined to command the fleet. Still Philip went on with his preparations, and was not to be turned from his purpose of invading England. Supplies of money were obtained from the Pope; troops were levied in all directions; ships were built in Spain and Portugal, and hired from the republics of Genoa and Venice; and flat-bottomed boats were prepared in Flanders for the transport of the Duke of Parma and 30,000 men. Thus threatened, Elizabeth summoned a great council of war, in which it was determined to meet the invaders by sea. At this time the royal navy of England did not exceed thirty sail; but merchant-ships were fitted out by the nobles and people at their own expense; and finally nearly 200 ships were collected for the occasion. Lord Howard of Effingham was appointed to the chief command; and under him were Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, whose names have scarcely been eclipsed by that of any hero in England's naval history. The naval force under the lord-high-admiral was divided into three squadrons, and stationed at different points to watch the motions and arrest the progress of the enemy. At the same time great preparations were made by land to meet the coming storm; and there was not a corner of England in which an armed force was not mustered.

At length, in the month of May, 1588, the Invincible Armada as the Spaniards in their pride called it, set sail from the Tagus. It was under the supreme command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, who was utterly inexperienced in sea affairs. When it sailed it consisted of about 130 vessels, of all sizes; but while steering towards Corunna it was overtaken by a tempest and dispersed. It was even reported that it could not sail again during that year; but the lord-high-admiral having proceeded to Corunna, to ascertain its real condition, found this to be a false report, and he returned to Plymouth. On the 19th of July, while most of his captains and officers were on shore playing at bowls, intelligence arrived that the Spanish fleet had been seen off the Lizard. There was a loud call for the ships' boats, but Drake insisted that the match should be played out; there was plenty of time, he said, both to win the game and beat the Spaniards. On the following day the Armada was seen standing majestically on, the vessels being drawn up in the form of a crescent, which from horn to horn measured about seven miles. The first object of the Duke of Medina was to steer through the Channel till he should reach the coast of Flanders, where he was to make a junction with the Duke of Parma, and bring that prince's forces with him to England. He was allowed to pass; but the English followed in his rear; and for several days a

running fight was kept up, in which the Armada was greatly weakened. On the 27th of July the two fleets came into more direct contact before Calais. A general sea-fight commenced; and in the midst of it Howard sent eight small ships, filled with combustible materials, close to the Spanish line. This act decided the victory. the Spaniards, taking these for fire-ships, which they seemed to be, fled in great disorder, and the English, profiting by the panic, took several of their vessels. The rest of the fleet rallied, and its captains cried for revenge; but the Duke of Medina resolved to make his way back, by sailing round Scotland. His fleet rounded the Orkneys accordingly; but it was there scattered and shattered by a tempest: some of his ships were dashed to pieces among the Orkneys, some were stranded in Norway, some were sunk, and others were driven on the coasts of Scotland and Ireland. Of the whole Armada only fifty-three ships returned to Spain; and those in a miserable condition, with their crews worn out with cold, hunger, and sickness, and looking like spectres. Such was the result of this great enterprise, which had been preparing for three years, which had exhausted the revenues and strength of Spain, and which had long filled all Europe with anxiety and expectation.

The discomfiture of the Armada was followed by a series of English expeditions against the Spanish territories, in the course of which many of their rich ships were captured. In most of these expeditions the command was given to Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, whom the queen had recently taken into her favour. The passion of Essex for glory made him desire a continuance of the war, and he encouraged the queen in the prosecution of it. In this counsel he was opposed by Cecil, Lord Burleigh, Elizabeth's tried minister; but Essex prevailed, and a desultory warfare continued down to the year 1597. In that year Cadiz was captured by the English, and Philip of Spain resolved to prepare a new Armada; indulging, it is said, in the hope of placing his own daughter upon the English throne. This attack was anticipated by the English cabinet; and a powerful armament was fitted out, and placed under the command of Essex, with orders to destroy the new Armada in its own ports, to intercept the treasure-ships, and to harass the Spanish coasts and colonies. This expedition, however, did not answer the expectations of the people. Essex captured three Spanish ships and the isles of Fayal, Graciosa, and Flores; but a Spanish fleet had threatened the English coast in his absence, and on his return the queen received him with frowns and reproaches. Essex retired to his house at Wanstead, and refused to go either to court or Parliament; but Elizabeth afterwards tempted him back, by creating him hereditary Earl-Marshal. In the year 1598 proposals were made for a treaty of peace with

England and Spain; and while Lord Burleigh strongly advised its acceptance, Essex argued hotly for a continuance of hostilities. These two rival statesmen also differed on another subject of importance during this year. For some time Ireland had been in an unsettled state; and its affairs had now become so alarming that it was deemed expedient to send over a new lord-deputy with extraordinary powers. Lord Burleigh proposed one officer and Essex another; and the queen sided with the former. On this occasion she attacked her favourite with her usual severity of language; and the earl, forgetting himself and his duty, turned his back upon his sovereign with an air of contempt. For this conduct Elizabeth gave him a box on the ear, and the earl immediately clapped his hand to his sword, and swore that he would not have borne such usage from her father. He then retired again to his house at Wanstead; but in a short time he returned to court, and was restored to the queen's favour. During his seclusion Lord Burleigh died, and Elizabeth is said to have wept bitterly for his loss. About the same time, however, she was comforted by the demise of her arch-enemy Philip of Spain; and upon the accession of his son, Philip III., the war was allowed to languish.

A gloom was thrown over the last years of Elizabeth's reign by persecutions, state trials, and sanguinary executions; but that which more nearly concerned the queen was the trial and execution of her favourite Essex. In the year 1599 an insurrection had broken out in Ireland, which was headed by Hugh, son of a baron of Duncannon, who had been exalted by the queen to the earldom of Tyrone, and who had exalted himself to be the O'Neil and rightful Irish sovereign of Ulster. The Earl of Tyrone defeated the English troops at Tyrone with great slaughter, and was proclaimed by the Irish the saviour of his country. By the particular request of the queen the Earl of Essex had been appointed to measure swords with this rebel chieftain; and he left London for Ireland, surrounded with the flower of the English nobility. This appointment had been made at the suggestion of the Cecils, sons of Lord Burleigh, who wished to remove him from court, in the hope that it would involve his disgrace if not his death; and in that hope they were not disappointed. On reaching Ireland he appointed the Earl of Southampton to be general of the horse; but the queen compelled him to revoke the appointment. Shortly after, as he appeared to have done nothing to put an end to the insurrection, he was accused of wasting time and money; and the queen broadly stated that she had great cause to think that his purpose was to prolong the war. In the month of August he marched for the first time into Ulster, the centre of the rebellion, where he met the

Earl of Tyrone; but, instead of fighting with him, he concluded an armistice, and then returned to England.

On the return of Essex from Ireland the anger of Elizabeth knew no bounds. She had him placed under restraint; and this restraint drove him into rebellion. In the year 1600 he made an affecting appeal to the queen; but, though he was shortly after released from custody, he was told that he was not to appear at court. This touched his pride to the quick, and a few days after, the queen having refused to continue him in possession of a valuable patent for the monopoly of sweet wines, he became desperate. Unfortunately, there was one in his service, a man named Cuffe, his secretary, who fomented the disposition for rebellion which the queen's slight of him had induced. It was suggested by Cuffe, that he might recover his ascendency by the removal of Sir Robert Cecil, Sir Walter Raleigh, and others from court; and relying on his popularity with the Londoners, he resolved on endeavouring to carry this plan into effect. He was joined by some noblemen, gentlemen, and others, and the attempt was made on a Sunday morning (the 8th of February, 1601), when he issued from the gates of Essex House, with a party of armed knights and gentlemen, shouting, "For the queen, for the queen! There is a plot laid for my life!" But the good citizens of London, on whose aid he had relied, did not respond to his call, and he and the Earl of Southampton were taken and committed to the Tower, while others of his followers were lodged in various gaols in London and Westminster.

Essex and Southampton were tried by the peers on the 19th of February. Among these peers were Cobham, Grey, and other enemies of Essex, men whom he had recently accused of seeking his life, so that his case seems to have been prejudged; but that he was guilty there could be no doubt. The proofs of his sedition and treason were considered all-sufficient, and he and his friend Southampton were pronounced guilty. He was advised to submit, and implore the queen's mercy by acknowledging and confessing all his offences; but he replied that he could not ask for mercy in that way, though with all humility he prayed her Majesty's forgiveness. Subsequently, however, it is said Essex did make an ample confession, which implicated several individuals, and among others James, King of Scotland. This confession filled four sheets; but its accuracy may be doubted, as may also the story of the queen's reluctance to sign his death-warrant and the romantic incident of the ring, said to have been given him by Elizabeth for the purpose of insuring his safety from her anger in any emergency of this nature. Her regard for Essex seems to have been extinguished for some time; and there are letters and documents in the

State-Paper Office which prove that, as soon as his confession was obtained, his execution was prepared by the full consent of the queen. He was beheaded in an inner court of the Tower, on the 25th of February, and his death was followed by those of Cuffe, his secretary; Merrick, his steward; Sir Charles Danvers; and Sir Christopher Blount, his step-father. The Earl of Southampton was kept close prisoner in the Tower; and others suffered imprisonment or paid large sums of money for their pardon.

In the meantime the Lord Mountjoy, who succeeded Essex in the command of Ireland, had to maintain a desperate struggle with the Earl of Tyrone. In 1601 Don Juan d'Aguilar landed at Kinsale, with 4000 insurgents, to aid the Irish; but Mountjoy collected all the forces he could, and shut up the Spaniards within their lines. The Earl of Tyrone then advanced to the assistance of his friends with an army of 6000 Irish and 400 foreigners; but he was defeated with great loss: on which D'Aguilar capitulated, and was permitted to return to Spain. Tyrone was subsequently compelled to capitulate; upon promise of life and lands he surrendered to Mountjoy, and the warlike operations of this long reign were closed by some minor naval conflicts on the coast of Spain and in the British Channel.

At this time Elizabeth was fast approaching the grave. By some her illness was supposed to have been brought on by her displeasure on being urged to name a successor; by others to have been caused by the affairs of Ireland, her council having constrained her to pardon the Earl of Tyrone; and by others it was attributed to the death of Essex. She became very melancholy; but it seems probable that the sufferings incident to her age, and the fear of death, were the chief causes of her dejection. For two days she sat on cushions on the floor, neither rising nor lying down, her finger being almost always in her mouth, and her eyes open and fixed on the ground. She took to her bed on the 21st of March, 1603; but she was carried to it partly by force: after which she listened attentively to the prayers and discourses of the Bishops of Chichester and London, and Archbishop Whitgift, of Canterbury. On her dying bed she was entreated to name her successor; on which she exclaimed, that her seat had been the seat of kings, and that she would have "no rascal" to succeed her. The lords not understanding, she was asked what she meant by the words "no rascal?" when she replied, that a king should succeed her; and who could that be but her cousin of Scotland? She died on the 24th of March, in the seventieth year of her age, and the forty-fifth of her reign.

Elizabeth understood the art of reigning in an eminent degree, though her wise ministers and her brave warriors undoubtedly

share the praise of her success; but they owed their advancement to her choice, were supported by her constancy, and, with all their abilities, could never obtain any undue ascendency over her. In her family and in her court she remained equally mistress. She reigned alone; and, like her father Henry VIII., reigned absolutely. The power which her impulsive affections had over her was great; but the strength of her judgment was still superior. In many respects her character and manners were unfeminine,—she was prone to violent anger and to the utterance of oaths; but this may be attributed chiefly to the age in which she lived, and to the circumstances by which she was surrounded. A mind less stern than that of Elizabeth would scarcely have been able to control the courtiers and subjects of that age; and if at times she appeared too severe, it must be recollected that events were frequently such as to justify severity. One thing, at least, is certain, that the reign of Elizabeth was a happy one, both for her subjects and for posterity.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.

1485. A dreadful epidemic disease called the sweating sickness prevalent in England.
1486. The Cape of Good Hope discovered by Bartholomew Diaz.
1492. Columbus discovers America.
1495. John and Sebastian Cabot sail in search of a north-west passage to India, and discover Newfoundland.
1497. The voyage to India by the Cape of Good Hope made by Vasco di Gama.
1517. Martin Luther affixes to the church door at Wittemberg his first thesis.
1519. Six men and a woman burnt at Coventry for teaching their children the Lord's Prayer, the Apostles' Creed, and the Ten Commandments.
1520. Luther excommunicated by the Pope.
1522. A Portuguese ship of Magellan makes the first voyage round the world.
1526. The New Testament translated into English by William Tindal, and the whole edition bought by the Bishop of London and burnt at St. Paul's Cross.
1529. Fourteen imperial cities of Germany protest against the decree of the Second Diet of Spires; hence the term "Protestant."
1534. The Papal supremacy annulled in England by the King's proclamation.
1534. Canada visited by Cartier, and possession taken of it in the name of the French king.
1535. The suppression of the monasteries commenced in England.
1536. Popular insurrections on this account in the north.
1541. An act passed for paving several streets in London, which are said to be "very foul and full of pits and sloughs."
1543. The astronomer Copernicus died.
1547. Gooseberries, salads, carrots, and other useful vegetables first cultivated in England about this time.
1562. Peach and nectarine trees introduced from Persia.

A.D.
1580. Francis Drake, the first Englishman who made a voyage round the world, returns home.
1588. The Spanish Armada leaves Lisbon.
1588. The first English newspaper published.
1599. Oliver Cromwell born.
1600. The East India Company first incorporated for trading purposes.

CHAP. XIV.

THE RELIGION, GOVERNMENT AND LAWS, COMMERCE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, ARTS AND LITERATURE OF THIS PERIOD.

For more than a third of the present period the ancient Romish faith was almost the universal belief of the people; and in no period did the church enjoy more authority. Wolsey was the most powerful prelate that had arisen since Becket, and in his style of living incomparably the most gorgeous. All the highest and most influential offices in the state were in the hands of churchmen, and the management of ecclesiastical and civil affairs was under their control. Their power and authority were greater than they had ever been; and, in the plenitude of this power, they could not refrain from persecuting those who adopted what they called heretical opinions. In the year 1494 the first English female martyr, Jane Boughton, suffered martyrdom for holding the opinions of Wickliffe; and her death was followed by numerous others throughout the country. But these barbarities acted otherwise than was intended; for, instead of moving the people to a horror of the new opinions, they moved them to a horror of the Romish Church. This horror was increased by the dissolute lives of the clergy, whose profligacy was often such as to prove to all around that they were not the servants of Christ. An impulse was also given to the approaching Reformation in the reign of Henry VII. by the revival of learning and by the printing of books, which tended to increase the knowledge of the people. The works of Martin Luther, who in this period wrote and preached against the abuses and errors of the Church of Rome, tended greatly to enlighten the public mind, not only in Germany, the scene of his labours, but over all the Continent and in England. The principles of Luther resembled in some points those of Wickliffe, and they were eagerly adopted by the people. Henry VIII. at first opposed his authority to the new tenets, but soon after changed his mind. It was his ambition to make himself supreme head of the church; and when this power was conferred upon him by Parlia-

ment he took means to destroy the power of the Pope and the clergy. He suppressed the monasteries, and applied their revenues to his own purposes, but at the same time he retained in a great measure the doctrines and ceremonies of Rome. Henry was in heart attached to those doctrines and ceremonies; and hence, while he executed Papists for denying his supremacy, he executed Protestants for not holding the faith of the Romish Church. In his time the great Wolsey threw a temporary protection over the church: in reality he was the ruler of England, and his greatness was linked to the ascendency of the ancient religion. But his greatness in the end contributed to its downfall: for when he fell that fell likewise. It was after his death that Henry dealt a mortal blow at the power of the Church of Rome, and took the first great steps in the work of the Reformation. No praise is due to him for the measures he pursued, as they emanated from ambitious and corrupt motives; but God overruled these motives for the salvation of England; and among the blessings which arose out of his antagonism to the Pope was certainly the destruction of the monasteries, which were frequently dens of infamy; and still more the translation, printing, and promulgation of the Holy Scriptures. This latter measure spread a light throughout the nation which has burned brighter and brighter through every succeeding generation. The people were enjoined to read the Word of God as that which every Christian man was bound to embrace, believe, and follow, as he hoped to be saved. Among the advisers of Henry were men, such as Cranmer and Cromwell, who were from principle attached to the work of the Reformation; and it was to them that its success in the reign of Henry must be chiefly attributed. But at the close of this reign the Church of England, although it had cast off the Roman supremacy, was still, according to its public formalities and the law of the land, one with the Church of Rome in all fundamental points of doctrine and belief. The seven sacraments of the Romish Church, the corporeal presence in the Eucharist, the denial of the cup to the laity, auricular confession, the celibacy of the priesthood, and the ceremonial of the mass were the doctrines of the English Church as long as Henry lived. At his death, however, a great and glorious change took place. In the reign of the youthful and good king Edward, by the wise councils of Cranmer, and the firm and bold arguments of Hooper, Ridley, Latimer, and other celebrated preachers, the ancient religion was completely overthrown, and the new doctrines were firmly established. The book of Common Prayer was substituted for the ancient Latin mass-book; images were thrown down; the ecclesiastical or canon law reformed; and the doctrines of the English Church settled in forty-two articles, similar in point of doctrine to the present thirty-nine. Yet, after

all, it was the reign of Mary, far more than that of Edward, that really made England a Protestant country. The first year of her reign saw everything that had been set up in the matter of the national religion by her brother thrown down; and all that he had thrown down again set up: fires also were kindled at Smithfield and elsewhere, which were never suffered to go out till the day of her death; but, notwithstanding all this, or rather in consequence of it, Protestantism grew day by day. No preaching told upon the public mind like that of the martyrs from the midst of the flames: men were convinced by their deaths of the superiority of their faith; and a horror of Popery was created which could never be effaced. At the accession of Elizabeth there was a national manifestation of Protestantism; and people of all classes hailed her, not only as their queen, but as their deliverer. The Protestantism of her subjects was indeed stronger than her own; and, swayed by the public opinion, she not only re-established all that Mary had overthrown in matters of religion, but settled the Protestant faith on a basis which rendered it impregnable to all future attacks. "So mightily grew the word of God, and prevailed."

Government and Laws.—At the accession of Henry VII., by the cruel contest between the Houses of York and Lancaster, the once formidable power of the feudal aristocracy had almost disappeared; and this king became more powerful than any King of England had been for many generations. Henry VII. was also a king who neither wanted ability nor inclination to avail himself of every means of strengthening his own position, and still further weakening that of his nobility. Judging from past history, he considered it his interest to depress the nobles so far as to hinder them from again becoming formidable. To this end various statutes were enacted; and he then applied himself to amassing money and increasing the splendour and power of the crown. But it was in the reign of Henry VIII. that the royal prerogative reached its greatest height. In his reign indeed Parliament had no will of its own; and though a great variety of statutes were enacted, they all emanated from that of Henry. The divine right of kings was distinctly claimed by and conceded *to* him in a statute; the preamble of which sets forth the contempt and disobedience of the king's proclamations by some who did not consider what a king by his royal power might do; which, if it continued, would tend to the disobedience of the law of God and the dishonour of the king's majesty. By another statute the king's style and title were settled in the following words: "Henry VIII., by the grace of God King of England, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith and of the Church of England, and also of Ireland, on earth the Supreme Head;" and it was declared high-treason to attempt to deprive him of this title. All the

enactments concerning religion also, and even those respecting common offences, proclaimed the absolute power of the crown.

The Parliaments of Henry VIII. were indeed but the servile executors of his imperious mandates. At his commands they attainted his queens when he wished to get rid of them; and at his commands they enacted laws dangerous alike to the liberties and lives of his subjects. Judging from the general administration of criminal law in this reign, from the trials that have come down to us of eminent persons, it appears that the lives of the people were entirely in the hands of the crown. A trial was nothing more than a formal method of signifying the will of the prince, and of displaying his power to gratify it. Laws seem to have been made for every individual case, as it arose; thus exemplifying the state of society in which men live without other law than the capricious will of the monarch. The principal legislative acts of the reign of Edward VI. chiefly related to religion and the church; but one statute abolished most of the treasons and felonies created in the preceding reign. Mary confirmed this on her accession, but she herself soon created treasons and felonies as arbitrary as those which had been abolished, and astonished the world with her cruelties. Under the long and brilliant reign of Elizabeth there was somewhat more of toleration and freedom; but the Star Chamber, that effectual instrument of the tyranny of the two Henries, still existed; the new inquisitorial tribunal of the High Commission was instituted, and the yoke of arbitrary power still lay heavy upon the subject: but all this was rendered tolerable by the brilliancy of the reign and the affection of the people for their queen. Elizabeth herself indeed was no friend to liberty, but jealously checked the first faint dawnings of its splendour. Her government was but little, if at all, less arbitrary than her father's; but it was free from gross vices, it was less offensive and less hated, because it was economical, and known to be exerted for the advancement of great national objects.

Within this period begins the regular succession of prime or chief-ministers in England. The earlier kings were often their own chief-ministers; but from the accession of Henry VIII. there has always been one of the council recognised as acting in that capacity. The revenues of the crown during this period, in addition to the usual sources, were derived by exactions from the people. The kingcraft of Henry VII. chiefly consisted in his dexterity in plundering his subjects. Henry, however, did not choose to establish new claims, but rather to proceed in his work of plunder by the revival of old and obsolete ones. Thus benevolences were restored by him on the pretence that the statute of the late reign, by which they were abolished, was a dead letter; it had been

passed while the throne was occupied by a usurper. The exactions of Empson and Dudley were, in fact, almost all founded on rights which had belonged to the crown in former ages, although they had ceased to be exercised. In the reign of Henry VIII. the work of spoliation was carried on on a more extended scale. His father had left behind him nearly 2,000,000 marks; but Henry was a spendthrift, and after he had squandered this large sum, and exhausted all the resources both of the ordinary parliamentary grants, and of every kind of irregular supply that had ever before been made available, he seized the immense property of the monastic orders. It has been calculated that the lands of which he thus took possession were worth 6,000,000*l.* sterling; and his annual revenue is said to have amounted to 800,000*l.*, which was twice as much as any former king had enjoyed. The next reign was as rapacious as that of Henry, and most of the means to which Henry had recourse continued to be pursued to satisfy Edward's hungry courtiers; even the plate, jewels, and furniture of the churches were seized by them. Edward's successor, Mary, finding great difficulties in obtaining any supplies from Parliament, was driven to extortion and rapine in other directions; money was raised by embargoes, monopolies, compulsory loans, and various other illegal and violent expedients. Both Edward and Mary died deeply in debt; but Elizabeth by her economy discharged their debts with the interest. With the accession of Elizabeth indeed commenced a new era in the history of the public revenue. Her expenditure was great; and her resources, compared with her predecessors, limited; yet she not only maintained the dignity of the crown, but also relieved her people from much of the burden of taxation by her economy. Towards the end of her reign, when some murmurs arose in Parliament against the exclusive traffic for commodities in which patents had been granted by her to her courtiers, she at once declared them null and void; and for this she obtained an address of thanks, wherein she was compared, in many respects, to the Deity: like Him, she was the agent of the blessings conferred upon her people; like Him, she was "all truth;" and, like Him, she "performed all she promised."

Commerce. — The present period was an age of remarkable progress in the commerce and general industry of the kingdom. Henry VII.'s love of money naturally led him to encourage commerce; and laws were passed and treaties were made with foreign countries for its promotion. This reign is also memorable for the two greatest events in the history of nautical discovery and of modern commerce, — the discoveries of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, which was made by Vasco di Gama, a Portuguese; and of the New World of America by the

illustrious Genoese Columbus. Both these important discoveries were made in the search after the same object,— the route to India by sea. Other discoveries were also made by the Cabots, who were patronised by Henry; and commissions were likewise granted by him for the "discovery and investing of unknown lands" to other merchants and adventurers. All these discoveries tended not only to the extension of foreign trade, but to give an impulse to native industry. During the early part of the next reign the increase of the foreign trade of the country, the wealth of the people, and their command over the conveniences and luxuries of life, proceeded at an accelerated rate. At this time, however, the artificers of costly articles in England were still mostly foreigners, and this circumstance gave rise to an insurrection in London in the year 1517, in the details of which we find some curious particulars concerning the branches of industry then carried on in the capital. The popular complaints against the foreigners were, that there were such numbers of them employed that the English had little to do, and but small custom: Englishmen, it was said, starved, whilst foreigners lived in abundance and pleasure. It was further objected, that they monopolised the trade in silks, cloths-of-gold, wine, oil, iron, tin, lead, and wool; and that Dutchmen, in particular, brought over "timber, iron, leather, ready-manufactured nails, locks, baskets, cupboards, stools, tables, chests, girdles, ladles, and painted cloths." The chief instigator of this insurrection was one John Lincoln, who prevailed upon Dr. Bell, a canon of the Spital, to read from his pulpit a written detail of the popular grievances, and to follow up that text by a sermon. In his discourse Bell showed that this land was given to Englishmen, and that, as birds defend their nests, Englishmen ought to cherish and maintain themselves, and to defend their rights against aliens. The precepts of this sermon were speedily reduced to practice; the apprentices rose *en masse*, broke open the Compter and Newgate prisons, and then fell to plundering the houses of foreigners. At first the authorities were unable to resist the rioters; but finally 300 were captured. Many of them were brought to trial, and being found guilty, were condemned to be drawn, hanged, and quartered: but only Lincoln was executed; the rest received the king's pardon. The affair seems to have excited much attention; for an act was passed, in which it was enacted that no foreigner should in future take any apprentice who was not a native; or should keep more than two foreigners as journeymen at the same time. Subsequently, 15,000 Flemings were obliged to leave the country by an order of council, the king declaring in an edict of the Star Chamber that the foreigners starved the natives, and obliged them to have recourse to theft, murder, and other enormities.

In the reign of Edward VI. one Richard Chancellor sailed into the White Sea, previously unknown to the English; and having landed at Archangel, he travelled on sledges to Moscow, and there obtained from the Czar valuable trading privileges for his employers, the London merchants. This was the origin of the English Russia Company, which was afterwards incorporated by a charter from Queen Mary, and soon became a flourishing and important association. About the same time the cod-fishing of Newfoundland was established. But the most important measure taken in relation to the foreign trade of the country, by the government of Edward VI., was the abolition of the privileges of the Steel Yard Company, which was a famous association of German and Hanseatic merchants resident in England. This act seems to have had a tendency to increase the trade of the English merchants; for in the same year, it is said, that they shipped off 40,000 pieces of cloth for Flanders. In the reign of Queen Mary the trade opened with Russia was vigorously prosecuted; and Chancellor was again sent to Moscow, where he arranged a commercial treaty with the Czar, in which all the usual privileges were accorded to the English traders. But the greatest impulse given to commerce, during this period, occurred in the reign of Elizabeth; who, well aware of what addition must accrue to the strength and wealth of the nation from the extension of trade, gave great encouragement to commerce and manufactures. It was in her reign that the building of the Royal Exchange, in the city of London, was begun by Sir Thomas Gresham, who is styled "The Queen's Merchant." In her reign a series of voyages of discovery were undertaken, under her auspices, by Frobisher, Drake, Davis, Cavendish, Sir Richard Hawkins, and Weymouth, and it was under Elizabeth also that a direct commercial intercourse with India was opened by the English, which subsequently led to wealth and dominion. Among the new branches of trade commenced in this period may be mentioned the detestable slave-trade and the whale-fishery, both of which grew into great importance. In the latter part of this reign a great impulse was given to the manufacturing industry of this country by the fall of Antwerp, which was destroyed by the Spanish commander the Duke of Parma. Many of the manufacturers and merchants who wrought and dealt in silks, damasks, bays, serges, stockings, &c., settled in England, by which a great portion of the trade in these articles was transferred to this country. The internal trade of England was still dependent upon the periodical fairs or markets held in great towns. Bartholomew fair was in those days a great annual mart, to which merchants resorted from various parts of the country, and perhaps from other coun-

tries, to make their wholesale purchases, as is the practice at this day at the great fairs on the Continent.

The silver coins of Henry VII. were testoons or shillings, groats, pennies, and farthings; and his gold coins, sovereigns, sometimes called the rose-rial or the double-rose-noble, half-sovereigns, and double-sovereigns. The state of Henry VIII.'s money was, like his mind and humour, very changeable and uncertain. At first he observed the same standard as his father; but he afterwards greatly debased both his gold and silver coins, by mixing the ore with brass, or rather copper. The shameful debasement of the money was one of the most imprudent, dishonourable, and pernicious measures of his reign: it was productive of great inconvenience in business, and the restoration of it to its standard purity was found to be a work of great difficulty. At first the debasement of the coinage was carried on by Edward VI.; but the public inconvenience and confusion arising therefrom came at length to be so severely felt, that measures were taken to restore it to its ancient standard. Mary carried on these measures; but the complete restoration of the coinage was reserved for Queen Elizabeth. All the debased money of her father and brother was recalled and melted down, and new coins struck with pure metal. Her gold coins are sovereigns and half-sovereigns, crowns and half-crowns, angels, half-angels, and quarter-angels, nobles and double-nobles; and her silver coins, crowns or dollars, shillings, sixpences, groats, and pennies.

Manners and Customs. — Considerable improvement was made in furniture during this period. Among the additions may be enumerated looking-glasses, round tables with pillar and claw, table-clocks, straight high-backed armed chairs, elegant bedsteads, rich carpets, screens, writing-desks, and knives for the table: articles of dress were continually varying, so that a complete description of them is impossible. The costume of the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. has, indeed, been rendered very familiar to every one by the numberless prints of those monarchs after the portraits of Holbein; and the general costumes in the time of Henry VIII. may be seen in Holbein's "Dance of Death;" and of Edward VI. in the ancient picture of his coronation procession from the Tower to Westminster. There was no striking change in the costume of England upon the accession of Mary; but in the reign of Elizabeth an entirely new style of dress was adopted; which has been rendered as familiar as that of Henry VIII.'s time, by the paintings and prints of the celebrated warriors, statesmen, poets, and ladies of the "Golden days of good Queen Bess," so that a description is rendered unnecessary.

At the commencement of this period chivalry had fallen into

decay; and though Henry VIII. made strenuous efforts to restore it, he could not raise it from the dead. Out of ancient chivalrous combats arose the duello, or duel; a change which introduced an entirely new system of fence. Fencing-schools were to be found in almost every town in England; and they were greatly encouraged by the kings and queens of this age. The first combats waged, whether in sport or in earnest, after the lists had been abandoned, were those of sword and buckler; but in the reign of Elizabeth a more deadly weapon, the rapier, was introduced, instead of the sword; while a dagger, wielded in the left hand, for the purpose of parrying, superseded the buckler. Much time and attention were devoted to this new art in the court of Elizabeth; and as the use of the rapier was most complete in the schools of the Continent, gentlemen went thither to be perfected in the science, while foreigners were frequently invited to give lessons in London. Before the close of this reign, however, the rapier was found to be too dangerous to be lightly provoked, and this kind of duel was abolished.

Another important change took place within this period in the practice of archery. During the reigns of the two Henries the bow still continued to be the principal weapon of an English army, and both these kings encouraged its practice; but towards the end of the reign of Elizabeth guns took the place of the "grey goose wing," and the bow was chiefly used as an instrument of the chase, or for the purposes of healthful exercise. Thus fell chivalry and archery; and with them those ancient appendages of rank, large trains of followers; but this latter change was brought about gradually. In the reign of Mary some of the higher nobility had still 200 retainers; but Elizabeth curtailed this number to 100, and these were only allowed to be armed on occasions of particular display. The royal train, however, still continued to be numerous; and Elizabeth, in removing from one place to another, is said, on some occasions, to have required 24,000 horses for the conveyance of her household. Her attendants were knights, nobles, guards, gentlemen-pensioners, and yeomen; and those of noblemen were the youngest sons of knights and esquires, besides persons of an inferior description, properly called retainers, and servants, who were chiefly confined to domestic duties. Persons of a lower description had also their attendants; and the citizens of London and their wives were attended in their evening excursions by their apprentices, who carried a lantern in one hand and a club in the other.

The kings and queens, as well as their subjects of this period, were great lovers of pageants and processions; and courtly ceremonies attained the utmost splendour and refinement during the

reign of Elizabeth. Her progress to Kenilworth to visit the Earl of Leicester, as described by two writers of that period, seems more like a fairy-tale than stern reality. Mirth, pomp, and flattery crowned every hour of the nineteen days she spent there; and the original programme of the amusements was even then materially curtailed, in consequence of the time proving insufficient for the exhibition of all the intended devices.

In the course of this period theatrical representations furnished amusement to all ranks; and a new era commenced in the history of the English drama. The author who wrought the greatest revolution in theatrical representations was Shakspeare, whose immortal productions are still the delight of the world. The happiest creations of the age of Elizabeth, however, could find no better shelter than a shed; for the first regular theatres in London were nothing but wooden booths, and the dresses of the actors and the scenery were of the most inconsistent and beggarly description. Sometimes there was no scenery at all; and to direct the imaginations of the audience, a label was suspended over the front of the stage, to tell in what place or country the action was going on. This defect is ridiculed by Sir Philip Sidney. "Now," he says, "you shall see three ladies walking to gather flowers; and then we must believe the stage to be a garden. By and by we have news of a shipwreck in the same place; then we are to blame if we accept it not for a rock. Upon the back of that out comes a hideous monster with fire and smoke; then the miserable beholders are bound to take it for a cave. While, in the meantime, two armies fly in, represented with four swords and two bucklers; and then what heart will not receive it for a pitched field?" Some of these theatres, however, and especially that at Blackfriars, where the plays of Shakspeare were acted, were crowded with people of fashion. A new play in those days passed through the fiery furnace of public criticism, as it does in the present: and if a piece was not approved of, it was loudly condemned by caterwauling and other hideous noises.

Great improvement took place in the manners of the people at the dinner-table during this period. Huge joints of salted beef, platters of wood and pewter, together with jesters, tumblers, and harpers, had gone out of fashion and given place to a stately ceremonial, solemn silence, and a large variety of dishes, consisting of beef, mutton, veal, lamb, pork, kid, coney, capon, with a store of red and fallow deer, and varieties of fish and fowl, besides pastry, wines and liqueurs. Sumptuous meals were now not confined to the tables of nobles, but private gentlemen and merchants fared as sumptuously as they. In this age, indeed, the characteristic English custom of assembling to eat in love and good fellowship fairly

commenced. The lord mayor became the grand impersonation of the national hospitality, being required, during his year of office, to keep open table for natives and strangers; and the exclamation "I have dined as well as my lord mayor" became the crowning eulogium of a good meal among all classes. This feasting was accompanied by excess in the use of wine and intoxicating liquors, which was now a common charge against the English. In the latter part of the reign of Elizabeth smoking also became a custom, the use of tobacco being introduced by Sir Walter Raleigh. Almost every man became a smoker; and without going far he was sure to find a tobacco ordinary, the original of our modern cigar divans. Smoking in those days was a slow and solemn process, in which the luxury was drawn out to the utmost, and the smoker slowly puffed the smoke both through mouth and nostrils, thus gratifying two organs of sense at once. A good dinner was incomplete without this luxury; cards were often its companions; and this dissipation was generally followed by debt and duns clamorous for payment, the ordinary fruits of excess.

Hunting, hawking, and fowling still continued in favour; and during this period horse-racing commenced as a regular systematic amusement; but uncontaminated as yet by the reckless spirit of gambling for which it is now noted. Among the elegant accomplishments studied at this time dancing was one of the chief: it was practised at court, in private houses, and at merry-makings and fairs. Some of the English sports at this time, as bear-baiting, bull-baiting, and cock-fighting, were infamous for barbarity, and excited the astonishment and disgust of strangers. All the various old festival days were still scrupulously observed by all classes. Thus, at Christmas, work and care were universally thrown aside; and instead of those devotional practices by which other countries commemorated the sacred occasion, England rang from one end to the other with mirth and jollity. Carols were trolled in every street, and masquerades and plays took possession of both houses and churches. The other festivals were those of Plough-Monday, which fell on the first Monday after Twelfth-day; May-day: St. Valentine's-day; Midsummer-eve, or the vigil of St. John the Baptist; New-Year's-day; and Palm-Sunday: all which were accompanied with feasting and merriment. They were also attended with the practice of profane swearing, which in common conversation had now reached its height in England. Kings, queens, and courtiers, the clergy, scholars, soldiers, citizens, and the common people were all addicted to this profane and impious habit.

The Arts. — During the distraction of the civil wars agriculture and gardening had been much neglected; but in this period they received great improvement. Fruit gardens were enriched by vari-

ous trees from foreign countries; as the pale gooseberry, the apricot, pippins, currants, and several varieties of plums. The hop-plant was also cultivated in gardens; and salads, cabbages, carrots, turnips, potatoes, the musk-melon, and the artichoke were now first introduced. The delights of the garden were heightened by the introduction of the gillyflower, the carnation, the rose of Provence, and the damask and musk-roses. In agriculture clover was introduced from the Netherlands; and its great value consisted in supplying green food where pastures were scarce, and enabling the farmer to keep cattle. The land of England was at this time both cheap and productive. In one of his sermons Latimer says that his father was a yeoman, and had a farm of three or four pounds per annum, of which he tilled enough to keep half-a-dozen men, while he had pasture sufficient for 100 sheep and 30 cows. The good bishop adds: "he kept his son at school till he went to the university; married his daughters with five pounds a-piece; kept hospitality with his neighbours; and gave alms to the poor: all this he did out of the same farm."

Among the national handicrafts and manufactures of this period woollen cloth maintained its old pre-eminence. Several classes of workmen were employed in making cloth, as weavers, fullers, walkers, fulling-mill-men, shear-men, dyers, forcers of wool, carders and sorters of wool, spinners, carders and spullers of yarn. Next in importance to the woollen was the worsted manufacture, of which Norfolk was the principal seat. Connected with these manufactures was the art of the dyer, which was one of considerable importance. The linen manufacture was on a very small scale during this period; all the finer linens being obtained from abroad, and the coarser descriptions chiefly made by industrious matrons for family use. Woollen caps had been for a long time a staple manufacture, but in the reign of Elizabeth they were nearly superseded by hats made of felt.

The history of ecclesiastical architecture may be said to terminate in England with the reign of Henry VII.; but this rather had the effect of giving a fresh impulse to the domestic branch of the art. The sixteenth century is, indeed, marked as an era of palaces, which were erected in a mixed style of Gothic and classic architecture; and the finest example of which was Theobalds, the magnificent seat of the celebrated Lord Burleigh. Kings, queens, and nobles appear to have conceived a passion for building, and artists from Italy were called into their service. Henry VIII. is said to have improved or completed ten palaces, of which only Hampton Palace now survives with any semblance of its original state. The whole of these edifices, however, were in the Tudor Gothic style, with an infusion of classical decoration; and it was not till the middle of the six-

teenth century that the Gothic and classical styles of building were blended as regards the exterior; the nobles then vied with each other in producing gorgeous palaces. Town buildings still retained the form which has characterised them from the earliest period of their history; and the more ordinary dwellings of the commonalty were so imperfect in the sixteenth century, that Erasmus attributes the frequent sicknesses which visited England in a great measure to defective ventilation.

Italy was the seat of the fine arts in the sixteenth century, which produced there the celebrated painters Bramante, Michael Angelo, Titian, Correggio, and Raphael; indeed, the meridian splendour which painting and sculpture had attained in Italy at this time cast its rays all over the Continent, and extended even to England. Hans Holbein, the scholar of Albert Dürer, with several other artists of note, resorted to and were patronised in this country. Of these Holbein was the most famous; and his works so attracted the notice of Henry VIII. that he took him into his own service, and assigned him an apartment at Whitehall, with a salary of 200 florins, besides paying him for his pictures. Of this painter an anecdote is related, which attests the high estimation in which he was held by Henry. A nobleman of high rank had roused his anger to such a degree by intruding upon him while he was drawing a lady's portrait for the king, that the artist threw him down stairs. Alarmed for the consequences of his rash act, Holbein instantly sought Henry's protection, and the nobleman followed to present his complaint; but Henry sided with the painter, and threatened his antagonist with his severest displeasure if he sought any means of revenge. "You have not now to deal with Holbein, but me," said the king: "remember, that of seven peasants I can make as many lords, but I cannot make one Holbein." The strength of Henry's friendship for the artist is also shown by his conduct towards him when he found that he had flattered Anne of Cleves; for his anger fell upon the minister who had promoted the match, and not on the painter who had flattered her beauty. During the short reign of Edward VI. painting lay dormant; but under Mary it was enlivened by Antonio More, a native of Utrecht, who was sent over to London that he might paint her portrait for Philip. Elizabeth appears to have had no real taste for the arts, but she encouraged them in order to feed her vanity; and so anxious was she concerning the transmission of her features to posterity, that she issued a proclamation forbidding the multiplication of her portraits by any but "special cunning painters." And yet there is not a single portrait of her that can be called beautiful, A pale countenance and Roman nose, a head of hair loaded with crowns and powdered with diamonds, a vast ruff, a vaster fardingale, and a bushel of

pearls, are the features by which everybody knows at once the pictures of Elizabeth.

Literature.—The sixteenth century is distinguished for the foundation of colleges, schools, and other seminaries of learning, which were for the most part established for the cultivation of the classics; Greek, Latin, and Hebrew being sedulously taught in them. No rank was deemed so exalted as to exclude the necessity of a thorough acquaintance with the learned tongues, and Henry, Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth were proficients in ancient literature. To an address of the University of Cambridge, written in Greek, Elizabeth made an extemporary reply in the same language; and she translated into English the Orations of Isocrates, and the Consolations of Philosophy by Boethius. This queen's example had great influence on the tastes of her subjects; and both the clergy and laity vied with each other in learning and literature. Hers indeed was a learned age, as the numerous works in all departments of literature published in her reign testify. "To the singular commendation of both sorts and sexes of our courtiers here in England," says an old writer, "there are very few of them which have not the use and skill of sundry speeches, besides an excellent vein of writing, beforetime not regarded." Towards the close of her reign the English language reached, in regard both to its vocabulary and its structural and syntactical character, very nearly the state in which it exists at the present day. Literature, both prose and poetry, was cultivated by all classes of the community. Among the most celebrated prose writers of this period may be mentioned the names of Sir Thomas More, William Lily, Dean Colet, Sir Roger Ascham, Sir Thomas Smith, Sir Philip Sidney, Webster, Puttenham, and the "venerable Hooker:" and among the poets those of Lord Surrey, Sir Thomas Wyatt, Stephen Hawes, John Shelton, Edmund Spenser, Sir John Davies, Lord Broke, Michael Drayton, Nicholas Breton, Henry Lok, Geoffrey Whitney, Sir Philip Sidney, the Countess of Pembroke, George Gascoigne, Barnaby Barnes, Sir Walter Raleigh, Thomas Tusser, George Whetstone, Samuel Rowlands, Thomas Churchyard, and, greatest of all, William Shakspeare. The age of Elizabeth may, on the whole, be considered as the most poetical of our national literature, though some of its finest productions belong to the first part of the succeeding reign. By the Reformation the moral atmosphere had become cleared, and a fresh principle was introduced into the habits and feelings of the people, which especially affected the structure of English poetry.

CHAP. XV.

THE PERIOD FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES I. TO THE RESTORATION OF CHARLES II.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	SPAIN.
1603. James I. VI. (1567)	Henry IV. (1589)	Rodolph II. (1576)	Philip III. (1598).
1610.	Louis XIII.	...	...
1612.	...	Matthias	...
1619.	...	Ferdinand II.	...
1625. Charles I. ...	...	...	Philip IV.
1637.	...	Ferdinand III.	...
1643.	Louis XIV.	...	...
1649. Republic ...	...	...	...
1653. Oliver Cromwell, Protector.	...	...	...
1658. Richard Cromwell	...	Leopold I.	...
1660. Charles II. ...	...	...	...

JAMES I.

The crown of England was never transmitted from father to son with greater tranquillity than when it passed from the family of the Tudors to that of the Stuarts. James VI., King of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary Queen of Scots, was proclaimed by the title of James I., and all classes hailed his accession with delight. As he approached the capital, hosts of people met him to do him homage; and although a plague was raging in London, he was crowned with great joy on the 25th of July. On his accession special ambassadors flocked to him from all parts to congratulate him; to all of whom he said, that he desired "peace at home and abroad—above all things peace."

It was not long, however, before a plot was discovered which, had it succeeded, might not only have disturbed peace at home, but also deprived James of his throne and his life. Sir Walter Raleigh, Lord Cobham, and the Lord Grey of Wilton, all of whom were smarting with the pangs of disappointed ambition, and trans-

ported with jealousy of the influence of Cecil, entered into a conspiracy against the government, and planned to seize the king on his road to Windsor; but the plot was discovered, and the conspirators taken and condemned to die. Some of their associates, as George Brook, Cobham's brother, were executed; but Cobham himself and Grey were pardoned, after they had laid their heads on the block; and Sir Walter Raleigh having received a respite, was remanded to his confinement, in which he continued for several years.

Both Romanists and Puritans expected toleration under the rule of James; but he was surrounded with advisers who urged him to a rigid enforcement of the penal statutes against them. With the Puritans he had long had a quarrel, and they soon found that he was their mortal enemy. His insults and persecution of them, however, were borne meekly, and they wisely abstained from returning evil for evil. But it was not so with the Romanists; who, enraged at the increased severity of the law directed against them, contrived a project to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons. This scheme was broached by one Robert Catesby, who conceived that a train of gunpowder might be so placed under the Parliament House as to destroy the king and all its members at once; and horrible and desperate as this plot was, Catesby soon found men as implacable and furious as himself to join in it. At first there were only seven conspirators, but finally their number amounted to fourteen. Their names were Robert Catesby, Thomas Winter, Guy or Guido Fawkes, Thomas Percy, Robert Kay, John Wright, Christopher Wright, John Grant, Thomas Bates, Sir Edmund Baynham, Robert Winter, Sir Everard Digby, Ambrose Rookwood, and Francis Tresham, most of whom were gentlemen of ancient families and good estates.

The plan of the conspirators was to hire a house adjoining the Parliament House, penetrate from thence through the ground under its walls, and lay a mine in the excavation. They commenced their operations in December, 1604, and by the month of February they had nearly forced their way through the thick and strong walls. While working in their mine, however, they heard a loud rumbling noise nearly over their heads, and feared they were discovered; but Fawkes soon brought intelligence that it was nothing but one Bright, who was selling off his stock of coals, intending to remove his business from a cellar under the Parliament House to some other place. This cellar was immediately below the House of Lords; and they now resolved to abandon their mine, and to take the place so convenient for their design. This was done; and thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were conveyed thither, and the

whole covered with coals and fagots. All this was completed by the month of May, and the conspirators then separated.

Parliament was to have met on the 7th of February; but it was prorogued, first to the 3rd of October, and then to the 5th of November. Before that day arrived it was agreed that Fawkes should fire the mine by means of a slow-burning match, which would allow him time to escape. It was expected that the king, queen, and Prince Henry would all be present at the opening of Parliament; and it was agreed that Percy should seize or assassinate Prince Charles, and that Sir Everard Digby should seize the Princess Elizabeth, who was kept at Lord Harrington's in Warwickshire, and proclaim her queen. All the conspirators now rejoiced in the prospect of success; but there was one among them whose heart was not so hardened in crime as the rest. Francis Tresham wished to save his friend and brother-in-law Lord Mounteagle, and he sent him a letter, advising him not to attend the opening of Parliament. This letter, which was delivered by a person in disguise, set forth that God and man had concurred to punish the wickedness of the times, and that Parliament should receive a terrible blow, and yet not be able to see who struck that blow. Lord Mounteagle, who, although he was a Romanist, was on good terms with the court and council, carried the letter to Whitehall, and showed it to Cecil and several of the ministers. It has been generally related that none of the ministers of King James could fathom the meaning of this letter, and that James himself first suspected some sudden danger by gunpowder; but it is proved, beyond all doubt, that both Cecil and Suffolk, the lord-chamberlain, understood the riddle, and had even communicated it to several of the lords before it was mentioned to the king. Cecil's advice was, that nothing should be done to interrupt the plan till the night before the king went to the house, but rather suffer the conspirators "to go on to the end of their day." The conspirators were warned that the plot had been discovered; but they had a vessel in the Thames ready to slip its cable at a moment's notice, and they still pursued their design. At length, on the evening of the 4th of November, Fawkes went to keep watch in the cellar. He had not been there long when Suffolk, whose duty it was to see that all arrangements for the meeting of Parliament were properly made, descended to the vaults and cellars, accompanied by Lord Mounteagle, pretending that some of the king's stuffs were missing. They threw open the door of the powder-cellar, where they saw Guido Fawkes standing in a corner; and the chamberlain asked him, with affected carelessness, who he was. He was servant to Mr. Percy, he said, and was looking after his master's coals. "Your

master," returned the courtier, "has laid in good stock of fuel;" and he then retired with his companion. When they were gone Fawkes hurried to acquaint Percy with their visit, and then returned to the cellar, still hoping they had escaped detection. But he was mistaken, for early on the morning of the 5th of November, as he came forth, booted and spurred, to look about him, he was seized and pinioned by a party of soldiers, and carried to Whitehall, where, in presence of the king and council, he boldly avowed his purpose, and said he was sorry it was not effected. He was pressed to disclose his accomplices, but for three days he refused; and it was not till he was put to the torture of the rack that he made the discovery.

In the meantime all the conspirators except Tresham had fled into Warwickshire and joined Sir Everard Digby, who, surrounded by a few armed men, was waiting the issue of the plot. On the discovery of its failure the conspirators were quickly deserted; and they then resolved to retreat into Wales, where they hoped to raise an insurrection. But vengeance followed them; they were pursued by Sir Richard Walsh of Worcester, and were overtaken at a house called Holbeach, where they resolved to defend themselves. Sir Everard Digby, however, stole away for fear; and he had scarcely left the house when some damp gunpowder, which they were drying before a fire, ignited and blew up with a tremendous explosion. Catesby and several others were seriously injured; and while in this state they were summoned by Sir Richard Walsh to lay down their arms; but they refused to surrender, and defied their numerous assailants. They fought desperately; and Catesby, the two Wrights, and Percy were killed, while the others were captured: Sir Everard Digby also and Tresham were afterwards captured, and they were all lodged in the Tower. They were brought to trial in January, 1606, and were all condemned to die the usual death of traitors; which sentence was executed at the west end of St. Paul's Churchyard. Three Jesuits, named Garnet, Gervis, and Greenway, had been privy to the plot, and Garnet was taken and executed; but the others effected their escape to the Continent. Several other Romanists were put to death in Warwickshire and the adjoining counties; some for being personally concerned, and others for harbouring the traitors. There were other victims, too, of a more elevated rank, as the Earl of Northumberland, the kinsman of Percy, and the Lords Stourton, Mordaunt, and Montague, who were arrested upon the ground that they meant to be absent from Parliament, and were therefore privy to the plot; they were never brought to trial, but were condemned arbitrarily by the Star Chamber to heavy fines and to imprisonment during the king's pleasure. Several severe penal statutes

were, moreover, enacted against the Romanists by the Parliament which was to have been blown into the air; and although James, who had now opened a matrimonial engagement for his son Prince Henry with the Catholic court of Spain, endeavoured to moderate their severity, he was obliged to assent to them.

King James, now relieved from his fears of conspirators, devoted himself entirely to festivities and hunting; and his court became profligate in the highest degree: in the words of an eye-witness, "men, shy of good liquor before, wallowed in beastly delights; and ladies were seen to roll about in intoxication." So deeply, indeed, was the king absorbed in his pleasures, that his subjects could rarely gain access to him; and when they did it was to little purpose. He called himself a most royal and heaven-descended prince, and an image of the Godhead; but his address and demeanour to his subjects clashed strangely with such notions. His conduct estranged the people's affections from him, and they were especially disgusted with his monstrous favouritism. His favourites, in succession, were Sir John Ramsay, Viscount Haddington, Sir Philip Herbert, and Robert Carr, or Ker. All these were loaded with honours and titles, to which they were neither entitled by services nor by merit. Robert Carr, who had been page to James, was successively knighted, created Viscount Rochester, honoured with the Order of the Garter, made a privy-councillor, and finally created Earl of Somerset. This produced a rivalry between Carr, Cecil, and Suffolk; and the history of the reign of James for several years is chiefly a history of their intrigues. Good government languished under this state of things; and the Commons became antagonistic to the monarch. Cecil endeavoured to obtain supplies; but he met with refusals session after session, and at length, in 1612, worn out with anxious cares, and the mortifications he received in Parliament, he died. After his death Robert Carr became the first man in the kingdom, the post of lord-chamberlain having been given to him by the Earl of Suffolk, who had succeeded Cecil as lord-treasurer. In reality, he was prime minister of England as much as Cecil had been, though nominally he held no official situation.

At this time Prince Henry, heir to the crown, was in the eighteenth year of his age: his character was the very reverse of that of his father; and he was the idol of the people. Henry's disposition was warlike; he loved arms better than books or hunting; the pedantry of his father seems to have been a great annoyance to him, and his mother is said to have encouraged this feeling, and to have represented to him, out of contempt for her husband, that so much learning was inconsistent with the character of a great general and conqueror, which *he* ought to be. When a mere child

Sir Walter Raleigh, the brave and scientific soldier and sailor, who was still languishing in the Tower, became an object of his admiration; and he was often heard to say that no other king but his father would keep such a bird in such a cage. His chief study was the exercise of arms; and, had he lived long, it is possible that the peace which his father loved would have been exchanged for the tumults of war. In other respects, however, the character of Prince Henry was greatly superior to that of his father. Thus, James was an obscene swearer, but Henry swore not at all; and he had boxes kept at his three houses to receive fines for profane swearing, which fines were given to the poor. A story is related, that one day, when the prince was hunting the stag, a butcher's dog met with it and killed it; on which the huntsman and company endeavoured to incense the prince against the butcher. The prince replied, "What if the dog killed the stag, could the butcher help it?" His attendants replied, "If his father had been served so, he would have sworn as no man could have endured it?" "Away!" exclaimed the prince; "all the pleasure in the world is not worth an oath." Day by day the young prince grew in the public favour, and his court was more frequented than his father's; a circumstance that seems to have awakened envy in James, who on one occasion was heard to say, "Will he bury me alive?" But James had not to envy his son long. It was remarked by an old writer, that Prince Henry was too soon a man to be long lived; and so it proved, for he was seized with a dangerous illness in October, and died on the 12th of November, 1612. The grief of the people at his loss was unbounded, but James himself exhibited a culpable indifference to the fate of his son; only three days after he recommenced a matrimonial treaty, in the name of Prince Charles, with Madame Christine, second daughter of the King of France, which — that with Spain having failed — he had begun for his deceased son Henry; in a few days more he prohibited all persons from approaching him in mourning; and in less than three months he married the Princess Elizabeth to Frederick V., the Count-palatine, with an expense and magnificence hitherto unknown in England.

In the year 1613 the two noble Howards, the Earls of Suffolk and Northampton, finding there was no possibility of checking the rise of Robert Carr, sought to bind him to their family by marrying him to the Countess of Essex, the daughter of Suffolk, and a very profligate woman, who had obtained a divorce from her husband for that purpose. This marriage proved fatal to Sir Thomas Overbury, whose abilities and experience had mainly tended to support Somerset in his power as prime minister. Overbury, who had opposed this match, was first confined in the Tower, and then poisoned. This shameful marriage, and the dark deed which followed it, brought

the king, with his favourite and the bishops, into great contempt; and ended ultimately in the fall of Somerset. From the time of the death of Overbury a cloud had settled upon his brow, and he became absent-minded, moody, and morose, even in the king's company; and as James had now adopted a new favourite, George Villiers, he was very willing to get rid of the first. On a sudden, while in the king's presence, Somerset was attached by the warrant of the Lord Chief Justice Coke, and brought to trial on a charge of poisoning Sir Thomas Overbury. Several of his accomplices were executed, and he himself, with his countess, were condemned; but they were pardoned by the king, and, after a few years' imprisonment, they retired into the country, "to reproach and hate one another."

Villiers, the new favourite of James, became far more powerful and mischievous than his predecessor Somerset. Like him, he rose through several gradations of rank, and was created Earl, Marquis, and Duke of Buckingham. An old writer says of him at this period of his career: "He now reigns sole monarch in the king's affections: everything he does is admired for the doer's sake. No man dances better; no man runs or jumps better; indeed, he has jumped higher than ever Englishman did in so short a time, from a private gentleman to a dukedom. But the king is not well without him; his company is his solace. All addresses are made to him, either for place or office, in court or in commonwealth. The bishops' sees also ebb and flow from the wane or fulness of his influence upon them." As dancing was the best thing that Buckingham could do, the court was made by him almost a constant scene of balls and masks, where the familiarity of James and his favourite was most offensive to good taste, and gave great umbrage to the great body of the people. The ill-will of the nation was also greatly increased by the methods adopted by James to support his revelry. The Parliaments continued to be parsimonious in granting subsidies, and even diminished them; and this induced the king to resort to arbitrary imposts, increased duties, forced loans, fines, and the like odious means of raising money. There was no end to complaints; and a permanent party was now formed for the maintenance and extension of liberty, which increased daily in numbers.

This universal discontent was heightened by an act of severity which has blackened the name of James for all ages. In the year 1594 Sir Walter Raleigh, in the course of one of his adventurous voyages, had visited Guiana, in South America, the fabled land of gold, which, though discovered by the Spaniards, had not been settled. He found the country to be fertile and beautiful, and he really discovered at one point, near the banks of the mighty

Oronoco, some signs of a gold-mine. He had in vain solicited his liberation when Somerset was in power, that he might set out on a voyage to take possession of this treasure; but when Buckingham succeeded to the post of favourite Raleigh obtained his suit. A fleet of fourteen vessels was fitted out by private munificence for this expedition, and Raleigh set sail in the month of March, 1617. On his arrival, however, he found that the Spaniards were there to dispute with him the possession of the treasure, and the two parties came into collision. The Island of St. Thomas, which was inhabited by the Spaniards, was captured and destroyed by fire; but all that was found therein was two ingots of gold and four empty refining-houses. Raleigh's crew now became mutinous, and he was obliged to return to England. James, who had been induced to sanction this expedition on a promise of his being put into possession of one-fifth of the gold, and who had often dreamed of his coming wealth, when he found that the enterprise had failed, and that it was likely to create a breach, if not a war, between England and Spain, issued a proclamation, accusing Raleigh of scandalous outrages in infringing the royal commission, and inviting all who could give information to repair to the privy-council, in order that he might be brought to punishment. The court of Spain likewise clamoured for revenge; and on his return Raleigh was arrested and again immured in the Tower. Had he returned with the gold he had promised his fate would certainly have been far different to that which awaited him. He was brought to trial on various charges connected with this expedition; but it was found difficult to convict him on these charges: his destruction, however, was fully resolved on, and he was therefore executed on the sentence of high-treason passed before his long confinement in the Tower, and which also had never been proved. As he was standing on the scaffold he felt the edge of the axe, and remarked, with a smile, "that it was a sharp medicine, but it would cure all diseases." He then laid his head on the block, and the headsman at two blows severed the neck of the soldier, sailor, statesman, and poet. James made a merit of this execution with the court of Spain; but the people regarded it as his eternal disgrace. This tragic event took place on the 29th October, 1618.

The death of Sir Walter Raleigh was soon followed by a war, in which his genius and bravery would have rendered essential service. The son-in-law of James, the Elector-palatine, was in 1619 made King of Bohemia by the people of that country, who threw off the yoke of the Emperor of Germany. This was the signal for war; and James raised and equipped 4000 volunteers, to aid Frederic in his struggle. This force, however, was too small, and was raised too late to be of much service; and in the year 1620 the Imperialists and Spaniards gained a decisive victory at Prague.

and Frederic fled with his wife and children into Holland. After his flight his patrimonial possessions were overrun by his enemies, and there was no power to restrain them; the people of England were eager for war to restore him, but James fondly hoped that he could reinstate his son-in-law by his skill in diplomacy. Ambassadors were sent in all directions, with instructions that were deeply laid, but frequently very contradictory. All these missions ultimately failed; and, without kingdom or electorate, without a province, without a house or home of his own, the Palatine, with his wife and family, was left to subsist at the Hague upon a pension allowed him by the Dutch. The desertion of his cause by James was severely censured in England, and on the Continent his conduct was held up to ridicule: at Antwerp he was represented on the stage with a scabbard without a sword; and in Brussels he was painted with his pockets turned inside out, and his purse empty.

James might have collected a force sufficient to restore his son-in-law to his dominions; but he was, in fact, reluctant to proceed in this war, because he was now engaged in a treaty with Spain for a wife for his son Charles. In the year 1621 he deluded himself with imagining that he had removed all obstacles to the marriage of Charles with the Infanta, but in that year Philip III. died, and was succeeded by his son Philip IV., brother of the intended bride of Charles. Lord Digby, the special ambassador to the young sovereign, reported that he was favourable to the match; but that he could not marry his sister to a Protestant without a dispensation from the Pope and a full assurance that she should be left to the enjoyment of her own conscience and her religion in England. Philip even wrote to Rome for a dispensation, and James himself secretly wrote two letters to the Pope in furtherance of his object. To conciliate the pontiff, James also issued pardons for recusancy to all English Catholics that should apply for them; and he ordered the judges on their circuits to discharge from prison every recusant that could find security for his reappearance. This created an alarm among his Protestant subjects, and the peace of James was again menaced; but still negotiations for the marriage proceeded. In January, 1623, James and his son signed articles, promising that the English Catholics should be relieved from all kinds of persecution, and be permitted to have their masses and other ceremonies in their houses; and the Spanish king then agreed to give his sister 2,000,000 of ducats, and to celebrate the espousals at Madrid within forty days after the arrival of the dispensation from Rome. At this stage of the business Charles, who was eager for the marriage, conceived a design of visiting the court of Spain, to see his bride. He set out on his journey accordingly, accompanied by the Duke of Buckingham, but on the

discovery of his departure there was great consternation among the people: it was said that he never would return alive, or if he did, he would come back a Papist. The prince and Buckingham travelled in disguise through France; and on their arrival at the English ambassador's residence at Madrid they announced themselves as Thomas and John Smith. They were, however, soon recognised, and the court of Spain was made acquainted with their arrival. Charles was received by the Spanish monarch with every token of respect and attention; and by his judicious behaviour, his youth, and his advantageous figure he endeared himself to the whole court. But by this time Charles had resolved never to marry the Infanta, for in his route through France he and Buckingham had contrived to spend an evening at the French court in disguise, and he there saw the Princess Henrietta Maria, of whom he became enamoured. Still he kept up the appearance of an ardent lover at the Spanish court, and had not events occurred at the Vatican, to delay the marriage, it would have been difficult for Charles to have returned without his bride, so deeply did he stand pledged to its consummation. A difficulty, however, arose, when the dispensation arrived from the Pope, which favoured his design. The legate to whom it was sent had orders not to deliver it until he had made a sure bargain with the English court as to a full toleration of the Catholic religion. James was willing to grant this; but his subjects were averse to it, and Charles was therefore recalled by his father. At his departure he presented the Infanta with a diamond anchor as an emblem of his constancy; but he was no sooner out of the reach of the court of Spain than he boasted how he had duped the Spaniards. This was soon discovered by the Spanish court; and the result of this rash journey was, that Philip prepared for a war with England. In this war James would have been well supported by the people; but, though he promised, that if Parliament would vote him money, he would apply it to that purpose, when it was granted he broke his word. Charles and the Duke of Buckingham raised four regiments of foot to aid the Dutch, who were at war with Spain; but James trembled, hung back, and talked only of the blessedness of peace.

While these events were occurring a new matrimonial treaty was set on foot with France for the hand of Henrietta Maria. King James and Prince Charles had now solemnly vowed that they would never tolerate the Papists; but in this treaty they submitted to the three following conditions: "That all Catholics in prison for their religion, since the rising of Parliament, should be set free; that all fines levied on them should be repaid; and that, for the future, they might freely exercise their own worship in private." Henrietta Maria now prepared for her removal to England; but

James did not live to see the arrival of the long-sought daughter-in-law. His health had long been breaking, under the united influences of anxiety, fear, full feeding, and the continual excessive use of sweet wine; and he was at length seized with a mortal disease, which the doctors called a tertian ague. He died on the fourteenth day of his illness, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-third of his English reign, on the 27th of March, 1625.

It would be difficult to find, in all history, a reign less illustrious than that of King James. While he imagined that he was only maintaining his own authority, he was encroaching on the liberties of the people; and while he endeavoured, by a careful system of neutrality, to acquire the good-will of contemporary sovereigns, he was not able to preserve the esteem of any one among them. His intentions generally were just; but they were more adapted to the conduct of private life than the government of a great nation. His generosity savoured of profusion; his learning of pedantry; his pacific disposition of pusillanimity; his wisdom of low cunning; and his friendship of light fancy and boyish fondness. The want of sincerity was a marked feature in his character; and his actions gave too much countenance to the severe lines of a satirist: —

> "The pedant scholar, he forgot the prince;
> And having with some trifles stored his brain,
> Ne'er learned, or wished to learn the art to reign.
> Enough he knew to make him vain and proud,
> Mocked by the wise, the wonder of the crowd;
> False friend, false son, false father, and false king,
> False wit, false statesmen, and false everything."

CHARLES I.

Prince Charles ascended the throne of his father without opposition. On the 30th of March, three days after his father's death, he ratified as king the treaty with France; and on the 1st of May his marriage ceremony was performed at Paris by proxy. Henrietta Maria arrived at Dover on the 27th of June; and, accompanied by the king, she entered London on the 16th of July. At first the people seemed satisfied with her appearance and cheerful manners, and it was hoped that she would become a good Protestant; but in a few days this hope seemed to be cut off. Mass was celebrated in her closet at Whitehall, and the people began to murmur. It happened that a plague had broken out before the late king's death, and as it soon grew worse and worse, it was said the land was scourged for relapsing into idolatry.

The first Parliament of Charles assembled on the 10th of June,

when money was demanded by the government for the war with Spain, and two subsidies were voted. This sum, however, was far from being sufficient to support Charles in his intended equipment, and he therefore had recourse to the old practice of extortion. This gave rise to great discontent, and other circumstances occurred by which this discontent was increased. At this time there was war in France between the Romanists and the Huguenots. Charles sent troops to assist the former; and though these troops were not of much service, the act brought upon himself an almost crushing weight of odium from his subjects. When, in the month of August, he met his Parliament at Oxford, he found the members so refractory, that, after the lapse of twelve days, he suddenly dissolved it, and thus increased the discontent which prevailed among his people.

During the Oxford session Charles could not obtain a farthing of supplies; but still he determined to proceed with the war against Spain; and by loans, exactions, and retrenchments in the court he was enabled to fit out an army of 10,000 men with ships of war. This armament was collected on the western coast, and the command of both fleet and army was given to Sir Edward Cecil, now created Lord Wimbledon. His instructions were to intercept the plate-ships from America, to scour the Spanish coast, and to destroy the shipping in the ports. He commenced by an expedition against Cadiz; but he was repulsed, and sailed back to Plymouth, disheartened and dishonoured. The unsuccessful return of an expedition which had cost him so much was a grievous blow to Charles; but he betrayed no vindictive temper against Lord Wimbledon, concluding that the failure of the expedition was ordained by Providence.

Being disappointed in obtaining the plate-ships from America, more money had to be raised by pawning the crown-jewels and plate to Dutch money-lenders. But whatever sums were raised by these means and by extortions under the privy-seal were absorbed by arrears of debt, so that all government affairs were soon at a standstill for want of money. In order to obtain more from his Parliament Charles resolved to please the members by persecuting and annoying the English-born Catholics; in doing which he broke his treaty of matrimony. The French court remonstrated, and reminded him of his treaty and his oath; but he still proceeded against the Catholics with great rigour. Having thus done something for popularity, Charles, on the 2nd of February, 1626, ventured to be crowned; and four days after his coronation he opened the session of Parliament. He again demanded money; but, instead of granting his demand, both Lords and Commons attacked his favourites and his government, and the Parliament had now

again to be suddenly dissolved. More extortions followed; and Charles and his favourites devoted their whole attention to the raising of money by illegal means. Among the measures adopted was the exaction of a general loan; for which each individual was called upon to contribute according to his rating in the last subsidy. Those who refused to contribute to this loan were visited with all the vengeance of absolutism: the rich were imprisoned, and the poor were sent to serve in the army and navy. In these measures Charles was aided by the church: sermons were preached extolling the merits of lending or giving money without the authority of Parliament, and even making those merits appear as essential to salvation. It was agreed by the preachers that the sovereign was not bound to keep and observe the laws of the realm; that Parliament was only an inferior sort of council; that the king's will was sufficient for the imposing of taxes; and that any disobedience or refusal to pay money for his use would certainly be punished in the next world. Texts of Scripture were even adduced to show that passive obedience was the duty of all good subjects.

In the meantime, while clouds were gathering around him from abroad, Charles found nothing but storms under the roof of his palace. For some time he had lived unhappily with his wife, and, attributing this to the influence of the French people about her, on a sudden he turned them out of doors, and gave orders for them to depart the kingdom. The French court talked of war, to avenge the wrongs of Henrietta Maria; but Richelieu, who was at the head of the government, had already wars enough on his hands; and he sent an ambassador to reconcile their Majesties. A seeming reconciliation took place; but the courts of England and France were still hostile to each other. In the year 1627 Charles, in order to recover his popularity with his subjects, sent troops to assist the Huguenots at Rochelle, who were besieged by the French royalists; but this expedition failed in its design. The blame of this failure was thrown upon the Duke of Buckingham, who commanded the forces; but Charles still treated him with affection and confidence. On his return, in 1628, a Parliament was summoned in order to obtain the means of renewing the war, and this time the Commons granted five subsidies; but it was not till after Charles had given his consent to "The Petition of Right," and which confirmed some of the most sacred clauses of Magna Charta. Preparations were now made for another expedition in aid of the Huguenots. A fleet was assembled at Portsmouth, and the Duke of Buckingham repaired thither to take the command: the preparations were nearly completed, when suddenly the duke was assassinated by one John Felton, a subaltern officer, who, after he was taken, boldly asserted that he "killed him for the cause of God and his country."

The command of the expedition was now given to the Earl of Lindsey; but he was unsuccessful, and soon after, Rochelle, the last bulwark of the Huguenots, was taken by Richelieu.

Early in the year 1629, while the spirit of Protestantism was embittered by these events, and while the English people were irritated by fresh excesses of the Star Chamber and High Commission Court, as well as by the levying of duties upon merchandise and the collecting of tonnage and poundage, Parliament again assembled. The first thing the Commons did was to revive all committees of religion and grievances, and to take into consideration in what things the liberty of the subject had been invaded against their Petition of Right since the last session. At this time all matters connected with the church were governed by Bishop Laud, who endeavoured to enforce conformity by imprisonment, the pillory, and death. Laud's creed was Arminianism; but he introduced great and manifold changes, which went to assimilate more and more the Anglican establishment to the Romish Church. Against his measures both Commons and Lords bitterly inveighed; but, in face of their determined opposition, Charles resolved to maintain Laud and the hierarchy. He commanded an adjournment; and when the Commons would not adjourn, and Sir John Eliot produced a remonstrance to the king against the illegal levying of tonnage and poundage, the speaker refused to put it to the vote. The Commons now drew up a protest against the innovations in religion, and the levying of the subsidies of tonnage and poundage, declaring that those who favoured either should be considered enemies to the kingdom and commonwealth. Having voted this protest, they adjourned for a week, and when, on the 10th of March, they re-assembled, Charles abruptly dissolved Parliament.

The members who had been most active in getting up the protest were Eliot, Hollis, Selden, Valentine, Criton, Hobart, Hayman, Long, and Stroud, who in the king's speech had been denominated "vipers." Before Parliament was dissolved these members were arrested and afterwards committed to the Tower: they were prosecuted in the King's Bench, where it was laid down as law that members had no privilege to speak at their pleasure, and that in doing so the accused had been guilty of a great offence, punishable in that court. They were all sentenced to be imprisoned during the king's pleasure; and some of them were condemned to pay heavy fines to the king. About the same time Richard Chambers, a merchant, was summoned before the privy council for refusing to pay tonnage and poundage; and, smarting under his wrongs, he asserted before its members that "merchants had more encouragement in Turkey than in England." For these words an information was preferred against him in the Star Chamber; and that detestable

court sentenced him to pay a fine of 2000*l.* For non-payment of this fine he was thrown into prison, where he remained twelve years; and when released by the Long Parliament he wandered forth a beggar, and at last died in destitution.

There was a conviction now abroad that Charles intended to rule without a Parliament; and it is true that the orthodox pulpits resounded with loud expoundings of his divine right to do so; but still there were circumstances which seemed to indicate that Charles thought rather of managing the House of Commons by winning over some of its most influential members. Among those he gained over to his cause were Sir Thomas Wentworth, Sir Dudley Digges, Noye, and Littleton; men who had been some of the most sturdy reformers and bold declaimers in the house. All these were bought with place and power in the government.

While Charles was thus engaged at home he was still at war with France and Spain; but in the course of this year he abandoned the French Protestants to their fate, and made peace with the French; and in the following year (1630), giving up the cause of his brother-in-law the Palatine, he signed a treaty of peace with Philip, King of Spain.

From the year 1629 to that of 1640 no Parliament was called; and during this period the history of England is a history of illegal exactions and oppressions. In contempt of the Petition of Right the king persisted in levying tonnage and poundage, and he even ordered that the goods of all such as refused payment should be seized and sold. Charles also revived certain feudal uses, or abuses, such as the atrocious game or forest laws, &c., which brought poverty on many of his subjects. His father had gravely declared that the plague which took place in London during his reign was owing to the constantly-increasing size of that city; and he proclaimed that "people must not be so wicked as to build any more houses there." Charles went further than this: he appointed a commission to examine into the growth and increase of London, and to levy money on those who were wicked enough to build in the metropolis, and in some instances the houses were pulled down, and the owners made to pay a penalty, besides suffering this destruction of property. An instance is mentioned of one person, named Moore, having forty houses, with coach-houses and stables, destroyed, and being subjected also to a heavy fine; but it was in matters of religion that the people were most sorely oppressed. Blind to the almost inevitable consequences of persecution, Laud grew stricter and stricter in enforcing conformity, and so grievously were the Puritans oppressed, that they emigrated in great numbers to North America, preferring a wilderness, with liberty of conscience, to their native country without it. These Pilgrim Fathers

settled in New England, while those Puritans who remained at home had their lives embittered by persecution. Their clergy were almost shut out of their pulpits; their congregations were hunted down in their conventicles; and when they had recourse to the press they were brought before the hated Star Chamber. Fines were extorted in this and in the High Commisson Courts for the purpose of erecting and enlarging cathedrals and churches, especially that of St. Paul's; and this "sharpened many men's humours against the bishops before they had any ill intention towards the church." Within this period Laud was made primate; and after this he behaved like a pope of the fourteenth century, hurling thunders of excommunication against disobedient priests and neglectful churchwardens; at his command painted glass reappeared in the windows, and pictures, chalices, and lighted tapers in the body of the churches, and great pains were taken to give pomp and magnificence to the national worship: all which was supposed to indicate a wish to restore Romanism. By a stroke of the pen Laud suppressed evening lectures and extemporary prayers, while at the same time he was zealous in restoring church-wakes and revels on the Sabbath-day. Lawful sports on the Lord's-day were established by royal commandment, and justices of the peace were ordered to see that the people were not interrupted in their diversions. This doubtless pleased some part of the community; but it was highly offensive to the great body of the nation, and especially to the classes branded with the name of Puritans. These, and various other measures equally impolitic, arbitrary, and unjust, produced a wide-spread and universal discontent.

This discontent reached its climax, when, in 1634, the court resolved upon the levying of ship-money: this was a tax which had in former reigns been levied without the consent of Parliament; but then such a supply had been demanded by the exigencies of the state. Great dissatisfaction was expressed at this new assessment, as an imposition against law and the rights of the subject; but for a time all opposition was overpowered by government. At length, however, in 1637, there was found one man who was resolved to resist and expose it: this was John Hampden. John Hampden was a wealthy English gentleman, of the true old Saxon stock. He had been a member of Parliament, and was possessed of immense estates, situated chiefly in the county of Buckingham. He was a man of cool judgment and great sagacity; and when Charles demanded ship-money he resolved to make a bold and decisive stand against the demand, and refused payment, purposing to try the issue at law. The sum demanded of him was small, only twenty shillings; but as the point to be settled was whether the king might levy taxes without law or authority of Parliament, he

justly considered his cause as one of the weightiest that could have to be decided between the sovereign and the people. The case was tried in the Court of Exchequer; and while the crown lawyers insisted on ancient precedents, from the Saxon times downwards, Hampden's counsel maintained that the laws and constitution of England had sufficiently provided for the defence of the kingdom without the novelty of ship-money. The arguments adduced by his counsel were so cogent, that the judges, though they were all in favour of the king, wavered; and the business was prolonged through the three following terms. At length, in 1638, the judges, overawed by the monarch, decided against Hampden, and he was condemned to pay, but the sentence pronounced against him did not set the matter at rest; resistance to ship-money was stirred up by this trial in all parts of the country, and everywhere men took heart by his patriotism, and followed his example.

About this time too a storm of opposition to government arose in the north. Laud had ordained the reading of the book of Common Prayer in all Scotch Churches from Easter Sunday, 1637; but from the opposition of the Scots the experiment had been postponed. On Sunday, the 23rd of July, the Dean of Edinburgh began to read the book in St. Giles' Kirk; but no sooner had he opened it than the people raised a wild uproar. The church resounded with "Down with the priests of Baal!" "A pape! a pape!" "Antichrist!" "Thrapple him!" "Stone him!" It was in vain that the ecclesiastics and civil authorities present endeavoured to quell the disorder, the rage of the people was so violent that no persuasions could appease it. Nor were the common people alone indignant at this interference with their national worship; nobles and clergy alike were opposed to the introduction of the book of Common Prayer, and the whole nation assumed a threatening aspect towards the government. The Scots arose in arms, and formed a well-regulated union, called "The Covenant;" but, unwarned by this show of hostility, Charles marched an army into Scotland to compel the Covenanters to submit to his will. On his arrival there it was agreed that a general assembly of lords should be held to decide upon the matter in dispute; both parties disbanded their forces, and Charles returned home, but the lords decided against the episcopacy and the liturgy, and there was again a mutual appeal to arms.

By this time, the year 1640, Charles had exhausted his ordinary resources by exactions, and he therefore resolved to call a Parliament and endeavour to obtain more constitutional supplies. This, which was called the Long Parliament, was animated with the same spirit as those which had preceded it, and a series of complaints was soon raised against the ministers. The Earl of Strafford, the

king's first minister, was accused of high-treason against the nation, and condemned in both Houses; and though Strafford had incurred the hatred of the nation chiefly by upholding the king's authority, Charles with great reluctance consented to his death. Strafford was beheaded in 1641, after having made a most resolute defence before the tribunal of his powerful enemies. Laud was the next object of attack by this Parliament: he was accused, arrested, and imprisoned, and in the year 1645 brought to the scaffold and the block upon Tower Hill. Charles now formed a new ministry, composed of popular men, and consented to all that the Parliament desired. He gave his sanction to a bill depriving him of the right to dissolve Parliaments; he abolished the Court of Star Chamber, and that of High Commission; and he declared the rebellious Scots good subjects and friends of the kingdom, gave them an amnesty, and pledged himself not to injure or molest any one for what was past. After this apparent reconciliation Charles visited Scotland, where he listened with an approving countenance to the Presbyterian preachers, and outwardly conformed to their simple ceremonies, and thus completed the triumph of the Covenanters.

From this time the torrent of the revolution swelled visibly and formidably. A rising of the Irish, in 1641, against the English Protestants, in which many thousands were killed, and thousands more perished by hunger and cold, was employed by Parliament to increase the hatred against Charles, who was represented as the author of tragic scenes which in reality he deplored. Charles was still in Scotland when the news of this event reached him; and the effect in Scotland, as in England, was appalling, for in both countries the general feeling connected the massacre with the intrigues of the king and his queen. On his return to London he was received with some congratulations, and was sumptuously feasted by the citizens; but a wide-spread disaffection prevailed throughout all classes of society. Parliament presented to him a list of grievances, which contained a long series of complaints about old and new, real and pretended injustice, that had proceeded from the throne; and this list was spread among the people to increase the irritation The position of Charles grew worse daily; and, at length, in 1642, he resolved upon war. Around his banner, which he first planted at Nottingham, rallied the greatest part of the ancient nobility, the most eminent of the Commons, the zealous adherents of the Episcopal Church, and the Romanists. Parliament, however, had all the large cities, the mass of the people, the army, the fleet, and the Scots on its side, so that the odds were greatly in its favour. The contending armies met first at Edgehill, where 30,000 Englishmen turned their swords against each other's breasts, and the

dearest friends and nearest kinsmen embraced opposite sides, and buried their private feelings in factious hatred. Four thousand men were slain, and the combatants separated only from weariness; for no victory was gained by either, though it was ostentatiously claimed by Charles. After the battle Charles proceeded to Oxford, and the Parliamentarians to London, where each party sought to strengthen its own cause. Negotiations followed, but proved fruitless; and the war continued. At first Charles was victorious; the Parliamentarians were successively defeated at Chalgrove Field, Atherton Moor, Roundway Down, and Newbury; and in this first campaign the two bravest and greatest men of their respective parties were killed,—John Hampden at Chalgrove Field, and Lord Falkland at Newbury. But a still greater man was rising amidst this strife, a man who was destined to overthrow the monarch's throne — this was Oliver Cromwell.

In the year 1644 the Scots came to the aid of the Parliamentarians, and Leslie, their commander, joined Lord Fairfax under the walls of York. Fourteen thousand men also, under the command of the Earl of Manchester and his lieutenant-general Oliver Cromwell, joined Leslie and Fairfax in the siege of York, and completely invested it. Prince Rupert and the Earl of Newcastle united their forces to raise the siege, and the Parliamentarians, threatened by them, placed themselves in battle array on Marston Moor, about five miles from the city. A battle was fought, in which victory declared itself on the side of the Parliamentarians; and chiefly through the skill, valour, and exertions of Oliver Cromwell, York was taken, and the Parliament gained the entire command of the north. From this blow the royalists never recovered; but the battle which decided the fate of Charles was fought at Naseby, in 1645; where a decisive victory was gained by General Fairfax and Cromwell, and the king shut himself up in Oxford, without hope of relief. Fairfax prepared to lay siege to Oxford, and in this extremity Charles resolved to throw himself into the arms of the Scottish army. Proposals were then made to him for a reconciliation with the Parliament; but he refused to accede to the conditions offered him, and in a short time the Scots delivered him up to the Presbyterian party, receiving at the same time a sum of 400,000*l.*, which they stated to be the payment for their military services to the Parliament, while the Royalists maintained it to be the price for which they had sold the king.

Charles was taken as a prisoner to Holdenby Castle, in Northamptonshire, early in 1647. After his defeat, and during his imprisonment, a contest arose between the Parliament and the army, at the head of which was Oliver Cromwell, whose talents now began to appear in full lustre. At his instigation the army began to con-

sider themselves as a body distinct from the commonwealth. They complained that, while they had secured the tranquillity of the nation, they were themselves deprived of the privileges of Englishmen. The majority of the members of Parliament at this time were Presbyterians, but the majority of the army Independents; and this was the real cause of the contest which took place between them,—their interests and designs clashed, and hence the struggle arose. But the contest was an unequal one, for what could counsellors do against an armed force? The trial of strength was soon over. The army formed a council of war, composed of officers and deputies of the common soldiers, called "agitators," and thus constituted itself at the same time a deliberative and an executive power. This done, Cromwell sent an officer to seize the king, who was in the power of Parliament, and carry him to Hampton Court, where he was confined as a prisoner of the army; and from this moment the Independents were completely victorious. Enraged at this bold step, the Parliament resolved that Cromwell should be committed to the Tower, and brought to trial for his misconduct; but Cromwell had expected this, and, instead of waiting to be made prisoner, he hastened to the army, where he was received with rapturous congratulations. The Parliament and the army were now at open variance with each other, and feeling that Cromwell's custody of the king rendered their situation perilous, the members renewed negotiations with the sovereign; but their demands were so excessive, that he refused to accede to them. Soon after this Charles made his escape from Hampton Court; but he was once more made prisoner in the Isle of Wight, and confined in Carisbrook Castle. While he was in this forlorn situation the Prince of Wales appeared in the Channel with a fleet; but he made no attempt to rescue his father. Negotiations were then renewed by Parliament, and attempts were made by his friends, and even many of his former foes, to save him; but all their efforts were fruitless. Cromwell dispatched a strong detachment to the Isle of Wight, with orders once more to seize the king, and lodge him in Hurst Castle; and this being done, Cromwell resolved to eject all members from the Parliament who would not yield an unconditional obedience to the army. This illegal violence was exercised, at his command, by Colonel Pride. When Parliament assembled, on the 7th of September, 1648, most of the members, as they appeared, were arrested or turned out, and only fifty or sixty, all Independents, were left to decide the affairs of the nation. This outrageous invasion of the Parliamentary rights was called "The purification of Colonel Pride;" and the remaining members were denominated "The Rump."

All the king's hopes of peace and restoration to power now vanished. At the same time he was not alarmed for his personal

safety, for he was still confident in the sacred dignity of majesty. He knew that the Long Parliament had taken away the lives of Strafford and Laud, but he did not dream that the Rump Parliament would attack his own. Yet so it was. On the 23rd of December, 1648, he was brought from Hurst Castle, and lodged in the royal castle at Windsor; and on the same day the Independents, calling themselves the House of Commons, appointed a committee of thirty-eight to consider of drawing up a charge against the king and all other delinquents who might be deemed worthy condign punishment. A few voices were raised for the saving of his life; but on the 1st of January, 1649, an ordinance, prepared by this committee, demanded the triel of the king for his invasions of the rights of the people. This ordinance was nobly rejected by the Lords; but on the 6th of January it was engrossed and passed by the Commons. By it the Independents instituted what they styled a high court of justice, for the trial of the king, to consist of one hundred and thirty-five commissioners, of whom any twenty were to form a quorum. Among the commissioners were three generals and thirty-four colonels of the army, most of the members of the Rump, three aldermen of the city, two sergeants-at-law, three lords, twenty-two knights and baronets, various citizens of London, and some few country gentlemen. Charles was brought to trial before this self-constituted tribunal on the 19th of January, on the site of the old Courts of Chancery and the King's Bench, at the upper end of Westminster Hall. As he took his seat in a chair, covered with velvet, which had been prepared for him, he looked sternly upon the court, and the court looked sternly upon him, neither party moving their hats. Sixty commissioners only were present, in addition to the president, Bradshaw. A charge of high-treason was exhibited against the king by Coke, as solicitor for the Commonwealth; but, instead of answering, Charles contented himself with disputing the authority of the court. "I do not come here," said he, "as submitting to this court. I see no House of Lords here that may constitute a Parliament; and the king, too, must be in and part of a Parliament." "If it does not satisfy you," replied Bradshaw, "we are satisfied with our authority, which we have from God and the people. The court expects you to answer; their purpose is to adjourn to Monday next." On Monday the 22nd Charles was reconducted to Westminster Hall, when he again questioned the legality of the court, asserting that a king could not be tried by any jurisdiction upon earth. It was demanded that he should plead guilty or not guilty; but he was silent, and the court again adjourned. The same scene was renewed the three following days, and still the king refused to plead: he resisted the proceedings of the court, he said, not for himself alone, but for the liberty of the

people of England. In the meantime the Rump Parliament had received information from Scotland that the Parliament there dissented from their proceedings; and Scottish commissioners were sent to make their solemn protest against all proceedings for bringing the king to trial. But it was too late; the wrath of the king's judges was now too great to be set aside by arguments and protests. On the sixth day the commissioners were engaged in preparing the sentence of death; and on the seventh Charles was brought up before them to receive judgment, and as he passed "a man cried, 'God bless you, sir,' and was struck by his officer for doing so, whereupon Charles observed, 'The punishment exceeds the offence.'" The robe which Bradshaw, the president, wore on this day was ominous,—it was scarlet; but again Charles declined to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the court, and demanded that he might be heard in the Painted Chamber, before the Lords and Commons. This demand, however, was refused: it was resolved to send him to the block, and Bradshaw sternly and coldly delivered the sentence: "The court adjudges that Charles Stuart, as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of this nation, shall be put to death, by severing his head from his body." On hearing his sentence Charles raised his eyes to heaven, and said, "Will you hear me a word, sir?" "Sir," replied Bradshaw, sternly, "you are not to be heard after sentence." Then turning to the guards, he exclaimed, "Withdraw your prisoner." He retired, amidst cries for justice and execution; but these cries were only uttered by a few of the soldiers and the rabble,—the voice of the nation was still in his favour. On his trial, when Bradshaw asserted that the charge was brought against him in the name of the people of England, a female voice, supposed to be that of Lady Fairfax, cried aloud, and justly, "No, not half the people!" He was condemned by a faction.

Charles now for the first time felt that his doom was inevitable, and he prepared to meet death with Christian fortitude. Judging from the scenes which preceded his death, it would seem that adversity had proved a blessing to him, by leading him to the foot of the cross. He was attended, at his own request, by Bishop Juxon, who remained with him to the last moment of his life. The time of execution was fixed for the 30th of January; on the morning of which he exclaimed, "Death is not terrible to me: bless God, I am prepared." On the scaffold, which was erected at Whitehall, he exhibited the utmost fortitude and resignation. After declaring his innocency, and charging the two Houses of Parliament with beginning the war, he said, alluding to the death of Strafford, "Yet for all this God forbid that I should be so ill a Christian as not to say God's judgments are just upon me; an unjust sentence that I suffered to take effect is punished now by an

unjust sentence on me." He declared that he had forgiven all the world, and even those in particular who had conspired his death, and concluded with a prayer to God that the people might take those courses that were best for the good of the kingdom and their own salvation; many of the people as he came along prayed aloud for him, the soldiers remaining silent, with dejected looks. On laying his head on the block he remarked, "I have a good cause and a gracious God on my side." "You have now but one stage more," said Juxon; "the stage is turbulent and troublesome, but it is a short one: it will soon carry you a very great way; it will carry you from earth to heaven." "I go," replied Charles, "from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can take place." At length the axe fell: the neck was severed at one blow, and a man in a mask took up the head and shouted, "This is the head of a traitor!" but the bloody deed was accompanied by a universal groan from the spectators. The faults of the early part of the reign of Charles were now lost sight of by his subjects in the contemplation of his sufferings; and feelings of bitterness gave place to commiseration, pity, and even admiration.

THE COMMONWEALTH. A. D. 1649.

One of the first measures of the Rump Parliament, after the execution of Charles, was to vote the House of Peers and the office of a king in the nation to be "unnecessary, burdensome, and dangerous to the liberty, safety, and public interest of the people." Two acts, in conformity with these votes, were soon passed; and an elaborate declaration was published in English, Latin, French and Dutch, to explain and justify the late proceedings, and the changing of England into a republic. A new great seal had been prepared for the event, and this was confided, "during good behaviour," to Whitelock, Keble, and Lisle. Six of the twelve judges refused to act; but the others agreed to hold their offices, provided the House of Commons would declare that the fundamental laws were not to be abolished. An Executive Council of State was established to conduct the affairs of the kingdom. It consisted of forty members, Bradshaw, the king's stern judge, being the president. The church was a more difficult matter to settle than the state, and therefore it was left almost untouched; but the Romanists were allowed more toleration than they had known since the days of Queen Mary. As for the army, it remained under the command of the men who had created it, Fairfax being still the commander-in-chief.

Cromwell was appointed to the command in Ireland, where he prosecuted the war with his usual success. His opponents were

the Duke of Ormond and O'Neil, the latter of whom headed the native Irish. But all opposition was vain; Cromwell soon overran the whole country, and in the month of May, 1650, he returned to England, leaving a few inconsiderable garrisons to be reduced by Ireton. After his return he received the thanks of Parliament for his services, and was appointed to the command in Scotland, where the royal cause had been espoused and young Charles placed on the throne. In this campaign he was equally successful; he defeated the Royalist forces at Dunbar, and again at Worcester, with great slaughter, and Charles was obliged to take refuge in flight. This latter victory was gained in September, 1651, and was what Cromwell called "his crowning mercy." Charles escaped, after a variety of romantic adventures, to Feschamp, in Normandy.

Crowned with success, Cromwell now returned to London in triumph, where he was met by the speaker of the House, accompanied by the mayor and all the City magistrates. The royal palace of Hampton Court was prepared for his reception, and shortly after, an estate worth 4000*l.* per annum was voted to him. From this time he seems to have entertained vague notions of grasping at the supreme authority; but his first care was to take advantage of his victories over the Scots. An act was passed abolishing royalty in Scotland, and annexing that kingdom to the Commonwealth. Ireland also was incorporated with it; and all signs of royalty were effaced in both these countries as well as in the settlements in America and the smaller dependencies of Jersey, Guernsey, and the Isle of Man.

Having thus reduced their own dominions to obedience, the Parliament resolved to chastise the Dutch. There were several causes which induced this war; but the two facts which most contributed to it were these: first, that the House of Orange, closely allied by marriage to that of Stuart, had exerted itself to avenge the late king's death and to restore his son; and, secondly, that the English Parliament had formed the grand scheme of a republican union, which proposed to join the United Provinces with the Commonwealth. The Parliament's chief dependence lay in the activity, skill, and courage of Blake, their admiral; and that of the Dutch in their famous admiral Van Tromp, a devoted partisan of the House of Orange. Three days' fight took place between these admirals in the Channel; at the close of which Van Tromp, though not thoroughly defeated, set sail for Holland. On his return he found the common people in the Dutch provinces all in an uproar and tumult; and the province of Holland, without the consent of the rest, sent over agents to make overtures for peace.

By this time the Rump Parliament was falling into disrepute

and disrespect in the country, and Cromwell took advantage of this to further his own ambitious designs. He urged the members to resign their power; while on their part they urged Cromwell to reduce the army. But in the army lay Cromwell's hopes and strength, and it was only by that that he could carry out his designs. Secure, therefore, in the attachment of the soldiers, he resolved to make one daring effort to overthrow the Rump; and he persuaded the officers to present a petition for payment of arrears and redress of grievances. This he knew would be refused; but he advised this as a means to an end. The Rump was already highly offended at the power of the army; and when this petition was presented they appointed a committee to prepare an act, ordaining that all persons who presented such petitions for the future should be deemed guilty of high treason. At the same time a committee of the House adopted the resolution of bringing into Parliament a number of Presbyterians, under the name of "Neutrals;" a measure which was in direct opposition to the wishes of the officers and of Cromwell. A meeting was held at Cromwell's lodgings in Whitehall of Parliament-men and officers of the army; in which it was debated what expedient might be found for carrying on the government and putting a period to the Rump; and in the midst of this debate news was brought from the House that the Commons were carrying their obnoxious bill about "Neutrals." All the members present immediately ran down to the House; and Cromwell commanded some of the officers to fetch a party of soldiers to accompany him. He then marched to the House with a file of musqueteers, and leaving them in the lobby, he went straight to his seat, where he sat some time in silence. At length, when the speaker was about to put the motion, he exclaimed to one near him: "Now is the time: I must do it." Harrison, the friend to whom he spoke advised him to consider what he was doing, and he sat down and paused for a minute; then, removing his hat from his head, began a violent speech on the question before the House. He was reminded that his language was not parliamentary. "I know it," he exclaimed; and rushing from his seat, he walked up and down, reproaching the members personally. Pointing at Vane, he observed, "One person might have prevented all this; but he is a juggler, and hath not so much as common honesty. But the Lord has done with him, and chosen worthier instruments to carry on his work." Vane and others remonstrated. "I'll put an end to your prating," shouted Cromwell: "you are no Parliament. I'll put an end to your sitting Get you gone! Give place to honester men." Then stamping with his foot heavily upon the floor, the musqueteers rushed in and surrounded him. Cromwell now ordered Harrison to fetch

the speaker from his chair; and pointing to the mace, which lay upon the table, he exclaimed, "Take away that bauble!" Sir Harry Vane remonstrated with him on his conduct. "Sir Harry Vane," retorted Cromwell, "Sir Harry Vane, the Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane!" The House was soon cleared; and when they were all gone the doors were locked, and Cromwell walked back to Whitehall with the keys in his pocket. "When I went to the House," said he to the persons assembled there, "I did not think to have done this; but perceiving the Spirit of God strong upon me, I would no longer consult flesh and blood." It was, however, probably rather the spirit of ambition that dictated his conduct.

Cromwell and his party now busied themselves in consultations about a new government and governors, but nearly three months elapsed before it was known what sort of persons Cromwell would select to hold under him the legislative power of the nation. At the end of that time 139 persons for the counties of England, six each for Wales and Ireland, and five for Scotland, were summoned by writs issued in his name to meet in the Council Chamber at Whitehall, as the British Parliament. There were many men of good family and of military distinction in this assembly; but mixed with them, were persons of inferior rank, who were chosen for their dislike of the Presbyterians and their influence over the common people. One of the most noted of the latter class was one Barebone, a dealer in leather, whose name was afterwards applied to the whole Parliament, though the more common appellation for this assemblage was "The Little Parliament." These members being seated round the council table, Cromwell made a long and devout speech, in which he assured them that they had "a clear call to take upon them the supreme authority of the Commonwealth." Francis Rouse was then chosen speaker; and they resolved to call themselves "The Parliament of the Commonwealth of England."

It was stipulated by Cromwell that this Parliament should not sit longer than the 3rd of November, 1654, and that three months before the dissolution they should make choice of their successors. But long before that period arrived the Little Parliament was broken up by the power that had created it, as the proceedings of its members alarmed Cromwell. They voted the abolition of the High Court of Chancery; they nominated commissioners to preside in the courts of justice; and they aimed a deathblow at tithes, without taking any care to provide for an equivalent. Other projects were entertained by them which Cromwell considered dangerous; and, five months after their first meeting, they were induced to dissolve themselves, and surrender their trust into his hands. Some of the members, indeed, were refractory; and

Colonel White was sent to clear the House of such as remained there. One Moyer was in the chair when the colonel arrived, and being asked what they did there, he replied gravely, that they were seeking the Lord. "Then," said the colonel, "you may go elsewhere, for, to my certain knowledge, the Lord has not been here these many years."

A council of officers was now held, in which it was resolved to establish a Commonwealth in a single person; and that that person should be the Lord General Cromwell, under the title and dignity of Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland. Cromwell therefore, on the 16th of December, proceeded from Whitehall to the Chancery Court, attended by all the principal officers in the kingdom, both civil and military, and was solemnly installed in his office. At this court a long document in parchment was read, containing a statement of the powers with which he was to be invested, and the rules by which he was to govern the three nations. The document declared that the supreme legislative powers should be and reside in the Lord Protector and the people assembled in Parliament; that all writs, processes, commissions, patents, &c., should run in the Lord Protector's name; that he should govern in all things by the advice of his council, and according to the present instrument and laws; that the army and navy should, during the sitting of Parliament, be in his and their hands, but in the interval in his and the council's only; that he and the council should have the power of making war and peace with foreign princes; and that he should be declared Lord Protector of the Commonwealth for life. Cromwell signed the document, and promised not to violate or infringe the matters and things contained therein; and on the following day the Lord Protector was proclaimed by sound of trumpet in the Palace-yard at Westminster, and the Royal Exchange and other places in the City. Thus the government of England was converted into a republic with a chief magistrate at its head.

In the meantime the English fleet had, as was said, "out-trumped Van Tromp." On the 25th of May, Van Tromp, the naval hero of the Dutch, again appeared in the Downs, having under his command a fleet of more than 100 ships. On the 2nd of June Monk and Dean engaged him; and on the 3rd Blake came up and decided the action. The Dutch lost seventeen of their ships, and, besides the slain, more than 1000 were made prisoners. Van Tromp, however, again got to sea on the 26th of July, with a fleet of 120 sail. Monk now commanded in chief, and on the 31st the two fleets engaged with an excess of fury rarely equalled. In the midst of the battle Van Tromp was slain, and the hearts of his men then failed; consternation seized the whole fleet, and the seamen turned

the prows of their ships towards Holland; thirty Dutch ships were captured; and this battle put an end to the war.

Cromwell on his exaltation to the Lord Protectorship immediately began to exercise the functions of sovereignty, and early in 1654 entered into alliances with France, Spain, and Portugal. He also made several new appointments in the courts of law, among which was that of the great Sir Matthew Hale, who was put on the bench of the Common Pleas. Thurloe, the friend of Milton, was made secretary of state. Cromwell ruled absolutely; but his authority and his life were frequently in danger. A man named Gerrard was engaged by Charles II. to surprise and murder him; but the plot was discovered a few hours before the time fixed for its execution, and Gerrard and one of his accomplices suffered death. The Protector's power was next threatened by some of the republican officers of the army, who had prayed and fought with him; but a few of the most distinguished of these men were imprisoned, and the rest submitted to his government. In Scotland the Highlanders generally defied Cromwell's power; but they were reduced to obedience by General Monk, who was reappointed to the chief command in that country for the express purpose of compelling their submission.

Cromwell's first Parliament met on the 3rd of September; on which occasion he addressed them from a chair of state, which was as like a throne as it could well be. In his speech he inveighed against the anarchic principles of the levellers, and the fantastic opinions of the Fifth-monarchy men; referred to the successful termination of the war with the Portuguese and the Dutch; and eulogised the measures of *his* government. The members elected their old speaker Lenthall; and their very first proceeding was to call in question the recent instrument of government which had made Cromwell Lord Protector. For eight days speeches were made against the power of government being in the hands of one man; but at the end of that time Cromwell called the members together and gave them to understand that they had nothing to do with such a question; his calling was from God, and his testimony from the people, and God and the people alone should take it from him. He presented to them a test, declaring that they must all sign it before they went into the House any more. This test ran thus: "I do hereby promise and engage to be true and faithful to the Lord Protector and the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and not to propose or give my consent to alter the government as it is settled in one person and a Parliament." Three out of four hundred signed this instrument; but still Parliament was refractory, — they would do nothing. During the five months of their sitting they did not present a single bill to the

Protector, nor did they honour him with the slightest communication, or vote him a single sixpence for meeting the expenses of the government. Cromwell dissolved his Parliament on the 22nd of January; on which occasion he bitterly reproached the members for their conduct. He regretted, he said, that they should have lost so good an opportunity of establishing a rational government, equally removed from the extremes of monarchy on the one hand, and of democracy on the other. "As I may not take notice," he continued, "of what you have been doing, so I think I have a great liberty to tell you that I do not know what you have been doing; that I do not know whether you have been alive or dead. I have not once heard from you in all this time. I have not; and that you all know." In conclusion, he told the members that, while they had been discussing abstract principles of government, the Royalist and levelling factions alike had been threatening to subvert all liberty and all right religion. Nor were these dangers now past. A few days after the dissolution of Parliament a plot was discovered, wherein many of the king's party and some of the levellers were engaged and acting in strange concert. A conspiracy was formed to bring in the king; and it so far took effect that several armed parties appeared in different counties; but these were all defeated, and several of the ringleaders were taken and executed.

Cromwell now rose to the height of his power. Spain and France, which were at war with each other, both courted his friendship and sought his alliance; and France was the successful suitor. Before signing a treaty with the French government, however, Cromwell required its interference on behalf of the persecuted Waldenses, a Protestant people dwelling in the upper valleys of Piedmont; Mazarin, the French minister, obtained from the Court of Savoy a solemn engagement to allow the Protestant mountaineers liberty of conscience; and then Cromwell finished his treaty with "his brother" of France. Recently he had sent a gallant fleet, under the command of Penn, to the West Indies, and Jamaica had been captured, but the King of Spain resented this attack on his territories by laying an embargo on English ships; and Cromwell, when he signed his treaty with the French monarch issued a declaration of war, in confederacy with him, against Spain.

Cromwell called his third Parliament on the 17th of September, 1656. This assembly was more subservient to his will, and money was voted and bills were passed as the Lord Protector desired. On the 23rd of February, 1657, they proceeded still further to show their attachment to Cromwell: they voted him an humble address, urging him to assume a higher title, and to put himself at the head of a government with *two* Houses of Parliament. Some

republican and military members opposed this address; but it was carried by a large majority, and the paper was presented to Cromwell by the speaker and the House. Six or seven members were appointed to urge him to assume the name of king; but Cromwell paused, saying he did not find it his duty to God and the country to accept the proffered title, and he desired time to reflect upon this part of the address. At the same time he gave his willing consent to that clause which recalled into existence the House of Peers.

In the meantime the Fifth-monarchy men had resolved that there should be no king but Jesus, and no Parliament but a Sanhedrim of saints, that is to say, of themselves, but this plot was detected, many of the conspirators arrested, and some of them were sent to the Tower. The discovery of this design interrupted the proceedings about the petition and advice, and the kingly title; but they were afterwards renewed. It appears that Cromwell had now become satisfied in his private judgment that he would do well to take the title of king; but, as he feared a mutiny and defection of a great part of the army, he thought it better to refuse the honour: at the same time he consented to be solemnly inaugurated as Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland; which ceremony was performed with pomp and circumstance little inferior to those which attend a coronation. Having received this honour, he prorogued the Parliament to the next January.

Soon after Cromwell's inauguration he was afflicted by receiving the news of the death of the brave Admiral Blake. "The last part he ever acted in a sea of blood," says a quaint old writer, "was against the Spaniards at Santa Cruz, where, with twenty-five sail, he fought with seven forts, a castle, and sixteen ships, many of them being of greater force than most of those ships Blake carried in against them: yet, in spite of opposition, he soon silenced the enemy, and brought his fleet back again to the coast of Spain full fraught with honour." His constitution, however, was now worn out by incessant action and disease; and he "who would never strike to any other enemy, struck his topmast to death." He died as he was entering Plymouth Sound, and was buried in Henry VII.'s Chapel in Westminster Abbey.

Parliament met, according to the period fixed at their adjournment, on the 20th of January, 1658; and by this time Cromwell had provided his peers who were to make up the other House: in all they were sixty in number, some of whom were noblemen, knights, and gentlemen of ancient family and good estates; the rest were for the most part colonels and officers of the army. They were summoned by the same form of writs which had formerly been used for calling the peers to Parliament; but, of all the members of the old House of Lords who had been named, only one answered to

the summons. The session was nevertheless opened according to the ancient and royal form, Cromwell addressing the members as "My lords and gentlemen." The step, however, which Cromwell took in creating the House of Lords as an integral part of the constitution in the Commonwealth proved to be hostile to his own interests, for by this creation of peers he had left himself in a miserable minority in the House of Commons, and had sown the seeds of discord between the two Houses. The Commons were arrayed against the Lords, and the Lords against the Commons; and Cromwell, to put an end to their strife, dissolved Parliament, after it had sat only fourteen days.

The Protector had never been in so much danger as at this moment. The republicans and their friends were ready to take up arms; the army was murmuring for want of pay; the Royalists were combining for the restoration of Charles II.; the levellers and Fifth-monarchy men were pledging their services to the Royalists; and Colonel Silas Titus, by a famous tract, entitled "Killing no Murder," was inviting all patriots to assassination, proclaiming that the greatest benefit any Englishman could do his country would be to murder Cromwell. The Protector, moreover, at this time was severely indisposed; and his iron constitution was giving way under the effects of labour, anxiety, and grief for the loss of his beloved daughter Lady Claypole. Yet, sick and dispirited as he was, he was still able to control his enemies. He called a meeting of officers; harangued the City and common-council; beheaded Dr. Hewett and Sir Henry Slingsby; threw other plotters into prison, and hanged three that were taken with arms in Cheapside. His wars abroad, also, were prosecuted with success. His troops the preceding year had joined the French army under Turenne, and had taken Mardick in Spanish Flanders; and this year they had gained a great victory over the Spaniards, commanded by Don Juan and the Duke of York, and had assisted in the capture of Dunkirk, which, according to the treaty, was delivered to Cromwell, and well garrisoned with Englishmen by Lockhart, his general in the Low Countries.

The victories of the combined forces of the English and French drew the two countries into closer alliance than ever. Messengers arrived in London to pay their respects to the Protector, and returned highly satisfied with their reception. They had scarcely departed, however, when a less welcome messenger arrived at the court of Cromwell — "Death itself, who came to require of him what was his due by nature." The first symptoms of his last illness appeared upon the death of his daughter, whom he had tenderly loved, and whose end is thought to have hastened his dissolution. His distemper was a tertian ague, which for a week threatened

no danger: and in the intervals of the fits he was able to walk abroad; but his malady gained rapidly upon him, and during the night of the 2nd of December, less than a month after the death of his daughter, he was assured that his end was approaching. In the course of that night he declared, in the presence of four or five of the council, that "my Lord Richard," his son, should be his successor. On the following morning he was speechless; and on the 3rd of September, which he accounted his happiest day, as it was the anniversary of his victories at Worcester and Dunbar, he died. He was then in the sixtieth year of his age.

Richard Cromwell was proclaimed Protector first in London and Westminster, and then in all the chief cities and towns in England, and at Dunkirk and in all other possessions abroad. Addresses poured in to him declaring great satisfaction in his succession. The neighbouring princes sent ministers to condole with him on the death of his father, and to congratulate him on his peaceable assumption of authority. Moreover, the army serving in Flanders, the officers of the navy, and General Monk and his officers in Scotland, all acknowledged his power, and pledged themselves to stand by him. "Not a dog," says Thurloe, "wagged his tongue against him." But Richard Cromwell was no soldier, and was destitute of high commanding powers of any kind. Having lived a retired life, he was almost a stranger to the soldiery over whom his father had exercised unbounded influence; the payment of the troops, too, was somewhat in arrears; and Richard found the coffers of the state empty, so that he could not satisfy their demands: the military, therefore, soon displayed symptoms of discontent. He nominated his brother-in-law Fleetwood to the command of the army; but that general was not satisfied with this dignity, and he secretly encouraged a petition which was drawn up and presented to Richard, requiring him to give up his control over the army. This was refused, and causes of discontent multiplied. On the advice of Thurloe, the Protector called a Parliament on the 27th of January, 1659. Both Houses met on that day, and the Commons proceeded immediately to debate and question the bill of recognition of his Highness to be Lord Protector; and to take into consideration the constitution of Parliament in two Houses, and the inexpediency and peril of allowing "the other House." The act of recognition was passed, and the question whether the House of Commons should transact business with the persons sitting in the other House as with a House of Parliament was carried in the affirmative; but at the same time it was denied any claims of peerage or any negative voice. A fierce attack was then made upon the late administration; but the army put an end to these proceedings by joining with the republican section to overthrow the

present Parliament. The army was now divided into three factions, the weakest of which adhered to Richard, while the strongest was controlled by Lambert: it was the latter section of the army which supported the republicans. A general council of its officers now voted that the command of the army should be put into better hands, and that every officer should declare his approval of the conduct of the army and the proceedings against the late Charles Stuart, or resign his commission. Parliament, however, declared that the meeting of officers was illegal, and on this the Lambertians, or the Wallingford-house party, drew up a representation to Richard, which set forth their want of pay, the insolence of their enemies, and their designs to ruin the army and the good old cause. This was the beginning of Richard's fall. The quarrel continued, and, to please the army, Richard was compelled to dissolve the Parliament. Fleetwood, Lambert, and the general council of officers now restored the Rump: and a declaration was published, inviting the members of the Long Parliament, who had continued sitting till Oliver Cromwell's ejectment of them in 1653, to return to the exercise and discharge of their trust. This invitation was accepted: the Rump assembled, under the protection of the army, and passed a declaration touching their purpose to secure the property and liberty of the people, without any single person, protectorship, kingship, or House of Peers. Richard Cromwell now prudently retired from public life, and signed his abdication of office at Hampton-Court. But the Rump Parliament and the army did not long act in concert: quarrels arose between the two parties, and in the end the Rump was dissolved by the power which had for the second time called it into existence. Lambert and a body of troops stationed themselves in the streets leading to Westminster Hall, and as the members proceeded to the House they were intercepted and sent home. The council of officers now sent one of their body to Monk in Scotland, and another to Ludlow in Ireland, to desire concurrence in their measures: and they nominated a committee of safety; appointed Lambert major-general of the forces in England and Scotland; and then kept a day of humiliation in Whitehall Chapel.

While this contest was going on with the army and the Parliament numerous plots and riots were raised by the Royalists; and several conflicts took place between their forces and the Parliamentarians; the latter of whom were uniformly victorious. At length, however, the affairs of royalty assumed a more favourable aspect; a change which was chiefly brought about by General Monk, one of Cromwell's most able generals. Monk, who was courted and feared by both parties, now began to play his own game. He had been a Royalist before he became a Parliamen-

tarian, and now he resolved to become a Royalist again. Sixteen days after the suppression of the Rump the officers of the army received a letter from him, expressive of his dissatisfaction at their late proceedings; and at the same time intelligence arrived that he had secured Berwick for himself, and was on his route towards London. Lambert was instantly appointed to command in the north, and messengers were sent to persuade Monk to retire, but in the meanwhile Monk sent to assure the leaders of the Rump that his sole object was to relieve Parliament from military oppression. He was still, he said, a friend to liberty and to the Commonwealth; but, if the Parliament believed him, the council of officers did not; they felt that his design was to restore Charles, and great commotions followed, in the midst of which Monk was intent upon maturing his own plans. He and certain officers of the army demanded a Parliament, which assembled on the 26th of December; and now sudden and rapid changes took place. The first measures of this Parliament were to dismiss the Lambertian officers from their commands, and to make Monk commander-in-chief of all the forces in England, Scotland, and Wales. This was effected by the Presbyterian party, whose influence in this Parliament was predominant. Soon after this Monk entered London in state, and the "godly and right-minded soldiers" he brought with him from Scotland occupied the City and its environs. His intentions were now soon made known. "It pleased him," says Whitelocke, "that the secluded members of the Long Parliament should sit again, and neither Haslerig, Scot, nor any of that party could prevail with him to the contrary." The secluded members accordingly took their seats in the House on the 21st of February, and the members of the Rump then gave up the field to the Presbyterians without a struggle. This majority now voted that Monk should be commander-in-chief of all the forces in England, Scotland, and Ireland; that all proceedings in Parliament since their seclusion should be and null and void; that Presbyterianism should be the sole religion; that the League and Covenant should be posted up in all churches without any amendment or alteration. They then passed an act for dissolving the Parliament, issued writs for a new one, and when this new Parliament met, negotiations were set on foot for the restoration of Charles II. Lords and Commons now vied with each other in loyalty; and the people united with them in restoring the monarch to his throne. All seemed to think that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained till the ancient constitution was re-established. Charles heartily responded to Monk's invitation; and bells and bonfires proclaimed the joy of the nation when it was known that "the king, the glory of England, was coming home again": and on the 8th of May, 1660, Charles was solemnly

proclaimed at Westminster Hall gate, the Lords and Commons standing bareheaded near the heralds when the proclamation was made.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.
1604. The Gunpowder conspirators hire a house to commence their operations.
1605. An act passed for "bringing in a fresh stream of water to the city of London," the origin of the New River Waterworks.
Lord Bacon's treatise on the Advancement of Learning published.
1606-7. Three fruitless attempts made to discover the north-west passage for the King of Denmark.
First permanent British settlement in North America.
1609-10. Three attempts to discover the north-west passage made by Hudson.
1610. The telescope first applied to astronomical purposes by Galileo at Padua.
Potatoes introduced into Ireland by Sir Walter Raleigh.
1611. The present translation of the Bible published.
1612. Sir Thomas Button sails in search of a north-west passage.
1613. Marriage of King James's daughter with the Elector Palatine, whence sprung the House of Brunswick.
1616. Shakspeare died.
The Earl and Countess of Somerset convicted of murder, but saved from punishment by the king.
1618. Sir Walter Raleigh beheaded.
The Elector Palatine accepts the crown of Bohemia, which gives rise to the Thirty Years War.
1619. The law of the periods of the planetary motions discovered by Kepler.
The circulation of the blood discovered by Dr. W. Harvey.
The manufacture of cotton introduced into England about this time.
1621. Lord Bacon impeached by the House of Commons, and convicted of corruption in his office.

CHAP. XVI.

THE RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, LITERATURE, ARTS, COMMERCE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, ETC., OF THIS PERIOD.

THE pacific reign of James I. had been occupied by a series of theological disputes, in which he showed himself more the theologian than the monarch; and the disputes between the church and the Puritans had induced him to call a conference at Hampton-Court, on pretence of finding expedients which might reconcile both parties. But James had really no such end in view as reconciling differences for he sided from the first with the church. On the

first day of the conference he declared that he saw as yet no cause so much to alter and change anything, as to confirm that which he found well settled already. Personal vanity was clearly his ruling motive for calling this conference. He thanked God, he said, "for bringing him into the promised land where religion was purely professed; where he sat among grave, learned, and reverend men; not as before elsewhere, a king without state, without honour, without order, where beardless boys would brave him to the face." He had called the assembly, he continued, with no purpose of either making or permitting any innovation in the constitution of the church, but simply to examine and endeavour to cure any corruptions that might have grown up therein. The Puritans, therefore, had no reason to expect any favour at the hands of King James; their case was prejudged. They began the conference by demanding, among other things, that the Book of Common Prayer should be revised; that the cap and surplice, the sign of the cross in baptism, baptism by women, confirmation, the use of the ring in marriage, the reading the Apocrypha, the bowing at the name of Jesus, should all be set aside; that non-residence and pluralities should not be suffered; and that unnecessary excommunications, and the obligation of subscribing to the Thirty-nine Articles should cease. The bishops made their chief stand upon the ceremonies, the Book of Common Prayer, and the Articles. Some of them argued at great length; and then, without hearing the replies of the Puritans, James himself took up the argument, and combated for the Anglican orthodoxy, in a mixed strain of pedantry, solemnity, levity, and buffoonery. One or two specimens of his oratory will suffice; for, as he loved speaking, and was in his element whilst disputing, it would be endless to relate all that he said. Dr. Reynolds having stated his objections to the Apocrypha, and particularly the Book of Ecclesiasticus, the king called for a Bible, expounded a chapter in Ecclesiasticus in his own way, and then, turning to the applauding lords, remarked, "What trow ye make these men so angry with Ecclesiasticus? by my soul I think he was a bishop, or they would never use him so." The bishops smiled; the courtiers grinned; and the Puritans were abashed. In answer to a question started by the Puritans, how far an ordinance of the Church could bind without impeaching Christian liberty, he said, he "would not argue that point, but answer therein as kings were wont to do in Parliament, *le roy s'avisera*." He then told a story about a Scottish preacher, who had told him that matters of ceremony in the church ought to be left in Christian liberty to every man. "But," he added, "I will have none of that; I will have one doctrine, and one discipline, — one religion in substance and in ceremony." He soon, however, let out that worldly motives dic-

tated this preference of episcopacy to presbytery. "If," said he, "you aim at a Scottish presbytery, it agreeth with monarchy as God with Satan. Then Jack, and Tom, and Will, and Dick shall meet, and at their pleasure censure me and my council, and all our proceedings. Will shall stand up and say, 'It must be thus:' Dick shall reply and say, 'Nay, marry, but we will have it thus;' and therefore here I must once more reiterate my former speech, and say, *le roy s'avisera*." The last demand of the Puritans was, that all the clergy of each diocese should meet in an episcopal synod, where, the bishop presiding, they should determine all such matters as could not be decided in subordinate assemblies. This amounted at most only to a demand for such a combination of presbytery and episcopacy as had been already established in Scotland. "Stay," said James, in reply to this demand, "stay, I pray you, for one seven years, before you demand that of me; and then, if you find me pursy and fat, and my windpipe stuffed, I will perhaps hearken to you; for let that government be once up, I am sure I shall be kept in breath; then shall we all of us have work enough; both our hands full. But, Dr. Reynolds, till you find that I grow lazy, let that alone." This conference left no doubt that James had a thorough aversion to Puritanism, and that he was wholly inclined to episcopacy. In all his proclamations, in his speeches in Parliament, and in the whole course of his government, he avowed his determination to enforce a conformity as strict as that maintained by Elizabeth. In 1617 he even attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland; but the zeal of the people in that country baffled his design. His son and successor Charles followed in his steps. At one time, when the Commons proceeded to carry their scrutiny into his management of religion, he abruptly dissolved the Parliament. On this occasion the Commons behaved with great boldness. As soon as they had the first intimation of the king's design from the speaker, who immediately left the chair, they pushed him back into it, and two members held him there until they had voted a remonstrance, in which all who should seek to introduce Popery or Arminianism were declared enemies to the Commonwealth. At this time many Arminians — men who asserted the freedom of the human will, &c.—had obtained the highest preferments in the church. Laud, Montague, and other bishops, the chief supporters of episcopal government, were all supposed to be tainted, as it was called, with Arminianism; and, in return for favours shown them by the court, these men and their followers became the strenuous preachers of passive obedience and an unconditional submission to princes. Charles had even higher notions of episcopacy than his father. His religion had indeed a strong tincture of superstition in it, and he required the most rigid conformity to the ancient ceremonies.

In this he was aided by Laud, whom he raised to the see of Canterbury and invested with uncontrolled authority over the consciences of the people. The religion which Laud wanted to establish differed very little from that of the Church of Rome, whence he was considered by the Puritans as the forerunner of Antichrist. Nor were the Puritans singular in this opinion. A court lady, having turned Catholic, was asked by Laud her reason for changing her religion. "Chiefly," she replied, "because I hate to travel in a crowd." The meaning of these words being demanded, she said, "I perceive your grace and many others are making haste to Rome; and therefore, in order to prevent my being jostled, I have gone before you." Laud's chief objection to Popery, indeed, seems to have been the supremacy of the see of Rome, to which he had no desire to subject his own metropolitan power but Laud's ambition and bigotry brought him to the block; and the high notions which Charles entertained of the royal prerogative, together with the rigid conformity he required of his subjects, involved him in the same hard fate. The Puritans now held rule in matters of religion, but when Cromwell assumed the reins of government he granted an unbounded liberty of conscience to all but Catholics and Episcopalians. Against the latter there was a kind of crusade: on every hand the clergy were turned out of their livings; and even those who were desirous of living peaceably, without joining either side, suffered in common with the rest of their brethren. Their estates and livings were sequestered; their houses and goods plundered by the rapacious soldiery; and they were driven into exile, or reduced to live upon the fifths, or a small pension allowed them by Parliament. The very edifices in which they had preached did not escape the fury of the mistaken zeal by which the Puritans were now possessed. Cathedral worship was everywhere put down; and many of those noble buildings were lamentably defaced and injured. An ordinance, passed in the summer of 1643, directed that all altars and tables of stone, &c., in churches, should be taken away and abolished; and this ordinance was fulfilled to the very letter. In the fury of its zeal against monuments of superstition Parliament even passed a resolution for the destruction of all crosses throughout the kingdom; and St. Paul's Cross, from which Ridley, Latimer, and Cranmer had addressed their forefathers in the days of the Reformation, and from which the Puritans themselves had proclaimed the tidings of salvation, was among the first that were levelled to the ground. In the language of the Psalmist: "A man was famous according as he had lifted up axes upon the thick trees. But now they brake down the carved work thereof with axes and hammers." The national form of worship was also altered. A new ecclesiastical polity was planned by an assembly of divines, which met at

Westminster; but the new system never made more than a very limited and imperfect establishment. The people became divided in matters of faith. "Sectarians," as they were called, among which may be mentioned Baptists, Quakers, and Fifth-monarchy men, as the most important, sprung up on every side.

Government. — Under the reign of the Stuarts the nation began to recover from its long lethargy. By King James it was asserted that the authority of monarchs was not to be controlled any more than that of God Himself; and the high prerogatives announced from the throne and resounded from the pulpit spread universal alarm among the people. They were not to be easily persuaded that their kings should rule according to their own unrestrained will: the art of printing had extended knowledge among them, and they had begun to discover that "knowledge is power." Throughout the whole of this reign a spirit of opposition displayed itself; but the storm which was gathering under James reserved its fury for his son and successor Charles. The general notions of religion, uniting with the love of liberty the same spirit which had made an attack on the established faith, now directed itself to politics, and Charles had to cope with a whole nation put in motion, and directed by an assembly of statesmen. Charles held the loftiest notions of the supremacy of kings, but the nation warred against his notions. Compulsory loans and taxes, disguised under the name of *benevolences*, were declared to be contrary to law; arbitrary imprisonments and the exercise of martial law were abolished; and the Court of High Commission and the Star Chamber were suppressed. The constitution was freed from the burden of despotic powers which had long weighed on it, and restored to its ancient vigour. But Charles could not brook the restraints put upon the sovereign authority. His language and conduct betrayed his secret designs; the nation took the alarm; a tempest blew around him from every point of the compass; the constitution was rent asunder; and Charles fell by the hands of his own subjects. After his execution the terrors of tyranny, anarchy, and civil war extended over the United Kingdom. The royal authority being annihilated, several attempts were made to substitute a republican government in its stead; but these attempts were fruitless. Cromwell became Protector and in effect king: a king with more unbounded power than the legitimate sovereigns of England had ever possessed. But he ruled by his soldiers; and when death overtook him there was no one possessing sufficient abilities to take his place. But by this time the nation had become tired of the severities of the Puritans and of the revolutionary condition of the country; the majority of the people desired the restoration of royalty, Charles II. was invited to take possession of his kingdom; and so monarchy was restored.

Literature.—The reign of James I. was distinguished by many eminent authors, who wrote both verse and prose. But much of the literature of that period is strongly marked by bad taste. The pun was common in the pulpit; the quibble was propagated from the throne; and the quaint conceit was expressed in poetry. Shakspeare however did not die till the thirteenth year of this reign, and another glorious name more entirely belonging to it is that of Lord Bacon. Many of his contemporaries were eminent in literature, but he outshone them all. His moral character was far from pure; but as a public speaker, a man of business, a wit, a companion, an author, and a philosopher, he is entitled to the admiration of posterity. In the turbulent reign of Charles, also, many men of great abilities made their appearance; and in that reign the force and compass of the English language was first fully tried in the public papers of the king and Parliament, and in the bold and eloquent speeches of the two parties. In that period vigorous genius displayed itself in political and theological controversy; a genius which subsequently rose to its highest power in Milton and his great epic poem of Paradise Lost. Cromwell, though not learned himself, gave encouragement to learned men; Usher and others were pensioned by him; and Milton, Waller, and Marvel were retained in his service. But the fanaticism of the Parliamentarians was as destructive to taste and science as it was to law and order. In the days of Cromwell what was called human learning was generally despised: newspapers and pamphlets were the chief literary productions of the day; and these all related to passing events and the great political and religious questions which then agitated the public mind. The age of James and Charles was one of learning; that of Cromwell, an age of fanaticism and violence. Both those monarchs not only favoured literary men, but aspired to the dignity of authorship themselves; but Cromwell was a man of action, to whom the sword was more familiar than the pen.

The Arts.—Considerable improvement was made in agriculture during this period; and numerous books and pamphlets on the art of husbandry were written though the nation, still continued in a great degree dependent on foreigners for its daily bread. There was a regular importation of corn from the Baltic and from France; and if these supplies were ever stopped the consequences were soon felt by the people. It is said that 2,000,000*l.* sterling were sent out at one time for corn; but the exportation of corn soon became an important branch of British commerce. This exportation had not been allowed till the reign of Elizabeth, and from that time agriculture received new life and vigour.

In the reign of James I. the line may be distinctly drawn between the ancient and modern styles of architecture in England.

Classical architecture then attained a degree of excellence that outshone for a time that of any contemporary school of Europe; and for this pre-eminence England is indebted to Inigo Jones, who was born in London in 1572, and who had studied the works of the great masters of Italy. There are few of the mansions of the nobility erected in the reigns of James and Charles in which Inigo or his scholar Webb were not engaged. But his chief specimens of architecture were those designed for royalty; and in the reign of Charles he was master of the king's buildings. His masterpiece was the old palace of Whitehall, which, if his design had been carried into full effect, would have been the sublimest production of modern architecture. In 1633 he undertook the restoration of St. Paul's Cathedral; but little was done till Laud became Bishop of London, when this great work was completed. The classical portico which he attached to this cathedral, it is said, was scarcely surpassed by any of the celebrated porticos of Rome, and was not equalled by any in modern Europe. His style is called the Palladian; but none of his successors in that school of architecture equalled him in taste or design.

Sculpture in this period did not keep pace with architecture: few works of sculpture indeed were executed in England except monuments, and they seldom, as works of art, rise above mediocrity. The sculptor most in vogue was Nicholas Stone, who executed a great number of monuments; but his works are by no means above the general level of this period. In the reign of Charles several foreign sculptors of reputation shared the patronage which he so freely dispensed to the professors of this art and Bernini, who at this time enjoyed a greater reputation as a sculptor than any artist in Europe, was employed to make a bust of that monarch. For this purpose Vandyke painted the well-known picture of Charles, in which he is represented in three views. It is related that Bernini, on receiving the picture, was struck with the physiognomy of Charles, and pronounced it to be that of a man who was doomed to misfortune. The bust was executed; but it was not known what became of it: and those who destroyed the original may possibly have destroyed the resemblance also.

The character of Charles I. displays itself in nothing more highly or purely than in the encouragement he gave to the fine arts, which he seems to have regarded from an enlightened point of view. The amusements of his court were refined and elegant, and his cabinets were the receptacles only of what was excellent in painting and sculpture. None but men of the first merit received encouragement from him: Inigo Jones was his architect, Vandyke his painter. Charles loved paintings; and those of foreign masters

were bought up by him at a vast price. The value of pictures was indeed doubled in Europe by his rivalry with Philip IV. of Spain, who was animated by the same love of art. Under his patronage many foreign painters besides Vandyke, such as Vansomer, Jansen, Honthorst, Rubens, and Mytens, came to England, where some of their most valuable works were produced. In the eleventh year of his reign Charles planned an academy of arts on a very extended scale; but a storm was then gathering round him which overthrew all his projects. It may be mentioned, that in his reign engraving as an art began to be first ardently studied; and in this art England has confessedly borne away the honours from all Europe. The first engraver of note who wrought in England was Wenceslaus Hollar, a native of Prague; and Crispin Pass of Utrecht also settled in this country, and executed numerous plates of considerable merit. The period of the Commonwealth was unfavourable to the arts in general; but it is remarkable that it was illustrated by the most exquisite coinage of modern times. This was the work of Thomas Simon, an Englishman, who became engraver to the Mint, and executed the Parliament seal.

Music was in its infancy in the beginning of the sixteenth century; but at its close it may be said almost to have arrived at maturity. Many composers of considerable note were then living, the most successful of whom was John Wilbye, who published two volumes of madrigals. James I. was a great patron of musicians: Orlando Gibbons, Ford, Ward, and Weelkes, all musical composers of note, are among the ornaments of his reign. In 1622 a music lecture, or professorship, was established at Oxford by William Heysher, a gentleman of the chapel-royal. All the children of King James were instructed in music; and Charles, his successor, was an able performer on the *viol de gamba*. Like his father, Charles patronised musicians; but he gave a fatal check to English professors by appointing an Italian to the then very lucrative office of "master of our music," although there were several of his own country, as Dr. Child and Henry Lawes, better qualified for that office. During the Commonwealth the art of music was almost banished from Great Britain, for organs were denounced by the Puritans; but it is a singular fact that the great organ taken by force from Magdalen College, Oxford, was placed by Cromwell's orders in the great gallery at Hampton Court; and that one of his favourite amusements was to be entertained with this instrument at leisure hours. Weekly music parties were also still held at Oxford, and the denounced organs were preserved in private houses; but these were exceptions to the general rule, and music must be considered to have lain dormant in England from the death of Charles I. to the accession of Charles II.

Commerce.—English commerce was in a very languishing state during the reign of James I., for the burdensome amount of customs was even augmented rather than alleviated. One or two new trading companies were, however, incorporated at that time; and the colonisation of different parts of America, which was carried on by the enterprise of private individuals, laid an ample foundation of commercial greatness for a future age. The East India Company received a new patent from James; and he granted new charters to the Company of Merchant Adventurers; and likewise a perpetual charter to a new company, called the Merchants of England trading to the Levant Seas, which is now known by the name of the Levant or Turkey Company: a charter was also obtained from him by the Russian Company, for carrying on the northern fisheries. Besides whales, the frequenters of the Greenland coasts now killed morses or sea-horses, whose teeth were esteemed at this period more valuable than ivory. The great staple of the trade of the kingdom still continued to be that in wool and woollen cloths; but before the close of the reign of King James, the Dutch had begun successfully to compete with the English manufacturers of the finer kinds of woollen cloth. Early in the reign of James two companies were chartered for the purpose of peopling the continent of America: the first of these was called the London Adventurers, or South Virginia Company; and the other the Company of Plymouth Adventurers. Many settlers were sent out under the auspices of these two companies, and those who settled in Virginia turned their attention to the cultivation of the tobacco-plant, which appears to have given great offence to James. He had written a work entitled A Counterblast to Tobacco; in which he assailed the use of that herb with every form of pedantic invective. He had also issued royal proclamations denouncing tobacco; and when he found that the Virginian colonists began to cultivate it, he not only complained, but commanded that the production of it should not exceed the rate of a hundredweight for each individual planter.

The march of colonisation and commerce was considerably accelerated from the accession of Charles to the breaking out of the war between him and Parliament, and the comparative activity and prosperity of the national industry is indicated by the various improvements introduced in the modes of travelling. Hackney coaches made their appearance in London in the year 1625; but they were then only twenty in number: ten years later, however, they were so numerous that Charles published a proclamation, in which he declared that they were a great disturbance "to his Majesty, his dearest consort the queen, and others of place and degree, in their passage through the streets;" and he commanded

"that none should be used or suffered in London, Westminster, or the suburbs thereof, except they were travelling three miles out of the same." About the same time sedan-chairs were brought into use by Sir Sanders Duncombe. These noiseless vehicles were greatly commended by Charles; and he granted Sir Sanders the sole privilege of letting them to hire for fourteen years. But that which more clearly indicated the progress of the national industry was the establishment of a regular, though limited system of internal posts. James had established a post-office for the conveyance of letters to and from foreign parts; but the origin of the home post-office dates only from the year 1635. Posts were then ordered to be established at Edinburgh, Lincoln, Hull, Chester, Holyhead, Exeter, Plymouth, and other towns: but there were still many important places left without them. The continued growth of London affords another proof of the advancing condition of the trade of the country, but repeated proclamations were made both by James and Charles, with the view of checking the further increase of the capital. At one time Charles forbade the erecting of any houses within three miles of any of the gates of London, or of the palace at Westminster; at another, he commanded all mere visitors to the capital to return to their homes in the country. But, notwithstanding these and other proclamations, London still increased in size and strength. The accession of James, says an old writer, "conduced not a little to unite the two cities of London and Westminster, which were once above a mile asunder; for the Scots, greatly multiplying here, nestled themselves about the court; so that the Strand, from the mud walls and thatched cottages, acquired that perfection of buildings it now possesses." The trade and industry of the country suffered considerable depression during the war between Charles and his Parliament; but after the re-establishment of tranquillity great pains were taken by Cromwell to bring about their revival. Considerable success attended his efforts: England indeed was treated with more respect by foreign powers than she had been since the days of Elizabeth, and this had a beneficial effect on her manufactures.

Manners and Customs &c. — The furniture of the palaces and mansions of princes and nobles in this period exhibited a degree of splendour and comfort scarcely surpassed by that of the present day. Many of the houses of our nobility in the country, indeed, contain at present rooms fitted up and furnished in the same style as then. Paper and leather hangings were at this time invented, and the walls of the wealthier classes were enriched with magnificent paintings of Rubens, Vandyke, Teniers, Rembrandt, and others, including the chief works of the earlier great masters of Italy. In the time of Elizabeth ornaments of chinaware had

been brought from Italy; but in 1631 they became regular articles of importation. Turkey and Persian carpets were used in covering the tables even of the middling classes of society; but floors were still matted, or strewn with rushes, excepting those of throne or bed-rooms, where carpets were laid down in front of the throne, or by the side of the bed. The ceilings of state apartments were adorned with historical and allegorical paintings.

For some time after the accession of James the general costume resembled that of the latter part of the reign of Elizabeth. Towards the middle of James's reign, however, it underwent a great change. and when that monarch visited Cambridge in 1615 the vice-chancellor of the University issued an order, prohibiting "the fearful enormity and excess of apparel seen in all degrees, namely, strange peccadillos, vast bands, huge cuffs, shoe-roses, tufts, locks, and tops of hair." Silk and thread stockings were generally worn by the gentry; and the noblest gallants, when they "consecrated their hours to their mistresses and to revelling, wore feathers chiefly in their hats, being of the fairest ensigns of their bravery." Specimens of the dress of females may be seen in the portraits of Anne of Denmark and the other ladies of that time; the enormous fardingale was worn throughout this reign by the higher classes; and the dresses of the ladies consisted of cloths-of-gold, brocaded silks, velvets, satins, tissues, &c.: even grogram gowns were lined throughout with velvet. At the commencement of the reign of Charles I. the later fashions of his father's time were still continued; and Ben Jonson in 1629, in one of his comedies, makes a beau declare: —

"I would put on
The Savoy chain about my neck;
The cuffs of Flanders; then the Naples hat,
With the Rome hatband and the Florentine agate;
The Milan sword; the cloak of Geneva, set
With Brabant buttons; all my given pieces —
My gloves the natives of Madrid."

After this time the fashions again underwent great changes; but the costume of Charles I. has been familiarised to every one by the numerous prints of that unfortunate monarch and the most distinguished personages of his reign, so that a description is not necessary. The same may be said of the costume of the Cromwellites; but it may be mentioned that the latter had their hair cropped, whence the title of "Roundheads;" and that they eschewed silks and satins, wearing cloths and coarser stuffs, of black and sober colours. Similar distinctions also arose at the same time between the females of the opposite parties. Masks were much worn at this period by ladies, and mufflers by women of humbler condition.

In the earlier part of the reign of King James there were a few tournaments held; but the character and tastes of that monarch soon led him to banish even these mere shadows of the chivalric ages. The lance and the battle-axe were exchanged for the rapier and the dagger; and the duello, or modern duel, became the customary mode of deciding "affairs of honour." In these encounters it sometimes happened that the parties, before using these deadly weapons, belaboured each other with stout cudgels; and in the regular duel it was not unusual for unfair advantages of various kinds to be taken by one or both of the parties, in order to insure the victory. Before they encountered, combatants sometimes searched each other's clothes, and occasionally, for better assurance, stripped and fought in their shirts. In his favourite character of peacemaker James found ample employment in composing the quarrels or preventing the duels of his nobles and courtiers; and before the end of this period duelling was set aside by the circumstances of the times. When the civil war broke out there was fighting enough of a more serious sort to satisfy the most bloodthirsty; and when peace was restored the practice of duelling was not tolerated by the government of the Commonwealth.

The chief amusements of the court of King James were masques and pageants, which were chiefly the production of Ben Jonson. Many of these were rational; but others exhibited great pedantry and frivolity, and some even savoured of blasphemy. On one occasion, during the visit of Christian IV., King of Denmark, there was a mock representation of "Solomon, his Temple, and the Coming of the Queen of Sheba," made by the device of the Earl of Salisbury and others. In the succeeding reign, however, royal masques and pageants were fair transcripts from the world of reality. The magnitude of this change is seen in an exhibition which was presented at Whitehall in 1633. It consisted of a masque and an anti-masque. The masque was composed after the fashion of a Roman triumph; the figures consisting of the comeliest men in England, dressed in the most splendid costumes, &c.: the anti-masque was formed of cripples, beggars, and other squalid figures, mounted upon miserable horses, and moving along to the music of keys, tongs, and bones. The exhibition was designed to express the devotedness of the inns of court, by whom it was presented, to Charles I. and his measures; and their abhorrence of Puritanism. In the anti-masque, however, a sly opportunity was taken of ridiculing the subject of patents, one of the chief political abuses of the day. Thus one man appeared with a bunch of carrots on his head, and a capon in his hand: he wanted a patent of monopoly, as the inventor of the art of feeding capons with carrots, and to have

the sole privilege of feeding them for fourteen years, according to the statute!

The era of feudal authority and magnificence had now departed; but something of the mere pomp of feudalism was still maintained in the domestic establishments of the wealthy. It was not uncommon for a nobleman to have from one to two hundred servants about him; and occasionally also companies of actors and bands of musicians. These cumbrous appendages, however, daily lessened; till the gallant and the courtier contented himself with a single page, who walked behind him, carrying his cloak and rapier. But this retrenchment in household expenditure was more than counterbalanced by extravagance in dress and personal ornament; both James and Charles set the example; and their subjects were swift to follow it. All classes vied with each other in the splendour of their apparel; and prodigality in feasting and riotous living was also characteristic of this period. The spirit of gambling, likewise, kept pace with these excesses; and dice conduced in many instances to complete the ruin of estates which the prodigality of a court life had impaired. Court fortunes daily became more necessary; and crowds of needy aspirants constantly assembled round the throne. The profligacy of the court was notorious. Foreigners who visited England at this time were astonished at the gross manners of both sexes in the higher classes: they relate, that although the English taverns were dens of filth, tobacco-smoke, roaring songs, and roysterers, yet women of quality allowed themselves to be entertained in such places. In the time of the Commonwealth, however, the manners of the people underwent a great change. "Bankrupt and shattered fortunes" were then mended by industry and frugality: the people in general, and the citizens in particular, paid attention to the augmentation of their capital.

Superstition was one of the leading characteristics of this age; and King James himself was a firm believer in witchcraft. He had, it would seem, a kind of personal quarrel with all witches; for during his matrimonial voyage to Denmark he said they had baptised a cat, by which they had raised a storm that almost wrecked his ship! When he became King of England he was as proud of the title of *Malleus Maleficarum*, as of Defender of the Faith. He wrote, reasoned, and declaimed upon witchcraft; and he waged war against old women with great fury during his whole reign. Witchfinders—men who could detect the crime, although Satan himself tried to hide it—were continually employed by him. They could discover an old woman's familiar spirit, not only by witch-marks and imp-teats upon the person, but by the cat that slumbered by the fire, the mouse that rustled in the wall, and the

bird that chirped at the threshold. The grand test, however, was that of Hopkins, the prince of witchfinders: by this the suspected person was bound hand and foot, and thrown into the water; if she sank, there was an end of her; if she swam, she only escaped the water to be put to death by fire. This miscreant paraded from county to county like a lord chief justice, rooting witches out of the land. But at length the murderer met with his reward, according to the strictest poetical justice; for he was found guilty by his own ordeal, and subjected to the same doom as his victims. This degrading superstition extended to the period of the Commonwealth; the persecution even became more rampant under the Long Parliament; and between 3000 and 4000 persons are said to have been executed for witchcraft between the year 1640 and the Restoration.

Town thieves and robbers abounded in the latter part of the sixteenth century. Elizabeth herself, on one occasion, while taking an airing in her coach near Islington, was attacked by a whole regiment of "rogues and masterless men," and was obliged to dispatch a footman to the mayor and recorder for assistance. During the reigns of James and Charles these marauders increased in numbers, and infested both town and country. Travelling became dangerous; the country was scoured by bands of armed men; and it was unsafe for all "true men" to travel, except in numbers and well furnished with arms. Salisbury Plain and Gad's Hill in Kent had long been noted places of danger, and highwaymen were further increased by the civil wars and the discomfiture of the royal cause. The impoverished followers of the fallen king endeavoured to retrieve upon the road what they had lost in the field; and many a cavalier who had distinguished himself at Marston Moor or Naseby was afterwards hanged at Tyburn as a thief. They justified their practice by saying, that they only took what was their own; and especially if the persons whom they had robbed happened to be Puritans. And it must be mentioned, to the honour of the English thieves at this period, that they never inflicted wounds or death, except in cases of desperate resistance.

Among the amusements of this age may be mentioned hawking, billiards, and tennis. Another old game was that of the balloon: a large ball of leather, inflated with air by a vent, and then bandied by the players with the hand. Bear-baiting and cock-fighting were also still among the amusements of the English; and horse-races had now increased in splendour and importance. The games and recreations of the citizens of London consisted chiefly in cock-fighting, bowling, tables, cards, dice, billiards, musical entertainments, dancing, &c.; and of the London populace, football, wrestling, cricket, cudgelling, nine-pins, shovel-board, quoits,

ringing of bells, pitching the bar, bull and bear-baiting, and throwing at cocks. The common amusements of the English peasantry were dancing, leaping, vaulting, archery, May-games, May-poles, Whitsun-ales, morris-dances, and the decoration of churches with rushes and branches. All these pastimes were declared lawful on Sunday; and were even enjoined upon all church-going people after divine service. The holy Sabbath, it was said, was closed by "mummery and buffoon."

CHAP. XVII.

FROM THE RESTORATION TO THE REVOLUTION.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

GREAT BRITAIN.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	SPAIN.
1660. Charles II.	Louis XIV. (1643)	Leopold I. (1658)	Philip IV. (1621).
1665. ...	...	...	Charles II
1685. James II.	...	...	...

CHARLES II.

Charles II. landed near Dover on the 25th of May, 1660; and on the 29th he made his solemn entry into London. He was hailed by his subjects as "great king," "dread sovereign," "a native king," "a son of the wise," "a son of the ancient kings;" and it was predicted that he would be an example to all kings of piety, justice, prudence, and power—that he would be the greatest king that ever bore the name of Charles. The Lords, the Commons, and the people, together with the foreign ambassadors who had so much complimented Oliver and Richard Cromwell, made great display of joy for his happy restoration.

The first act of Charles was to invest Monk with the Order of the Garter, and make him a member of the privy council. His crime of serving under the Commonwealth was forgotten in the part he had taken in restoring Charles to his throne. Monk was, however, more fortunate than most of the Cromwellites. While on the Continent Charles had made a declaration that he would

grant a free pardon to all but those whom the Parliament should except. Of those who had joined in the trial of Charles I. twenty-five had already followed their victim to the grave, and nineteen had escaped to foreign countries; but in an act of indemnity passed by Parliament fifty-one persons who had taken part in the condemnation of the late monarch were exempted from pardon and were pronounced liable to be punished by death. Vane, Lambert, and others were subjected to imprisonment and the forfeiture of their property; and all who had sat in the high courts of justice, with about twenty more, were declared unable to hold office. Twenty-nine were brought to trial before a commission court, and were all found guilty. Ten were executed: the rest were condemned to perpetual imprisonment. A disgusting and useless proceeding followed: the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were taken from their coffins and hanged upon the gallows at Tyburn; and other bodies were removed from Westminster Abbey to the adjoining churchyard. The poet Milton was committed to the custody of the sergeant-at-arms, and threatened with destruction for having written his work in "Defence of the English People;" but he escaped with no other punishment than the robbery of his goods and a general disqualification for public service. Prynne would have hunted down the inoffensive and amiable Richard Cromwell; but no one seconded his views, and he was allowed to live and die in the pleasant retirement of Cheshunt.

Several other bills were presented to the king at the same time with this indemnity bill: one of these gave the duty of tonnage and poundage to Charles for life; a second made the king's birthday and glorious Restoration, the 29th of May, a perpetual anniversary; and a third enacted that a speedy provision of money should be made to disband the old army and navy. Subsequently the Commons proposed raising the royal income to 1,200,000*l.* per annum; but the means for providing this money were reserved for future consideration.

There was still something remaining more difficult to settle than indemnity or revenue; this was the great question of religion. Charles had, prior to his restoration, promised that no man should be disquieted or called in question for differences of opinion in matters of religion which did not disturb the peace of the kingdom; and that he would consent to any act of Parliament that should be offered to him for securing liberty of conscience. This "Convention Parliament," however, was incapable of devising any such act, and the nation at large was incapable of any generous toleration. Hot disputes arose upon this question; and it was finally carried, though only by a slight majority, that the settlement of religion should be left to the king, who should be petitioned to convene a

select number of divines to treat concerning the matter. In October Charles issued a declaration, enjoining the bishops to act, with the assistance of a part of the clergy; and promising that the reading of the Liturgy, observance of ceremonies, and subscription to the Articles should not be required from those who objected thereto. A bill was brought into Parliament to give a legal settlement of the question; but the lord chancellor caused it to be rejected, and the Parliament was dissolved on the 29th of December.

Early in the year 1661 some fanatics, headed by a man named Venner, rose in arms and proclaimed a fifth-monarchy under "King Jesus;" but they were speedily suppressed, twenty of them were killed, and some of them were taken prisoners and executed. The coronation of Charles took place in April; and on this occasion the whole nation seemed intoxicated with loyal feelings: rioting and drunkenness, of every kind, indeed, were universal throughout the land, and those who censured the general outbreak of profligacy were insulted and abused as republicans.

The new Parliament, which met on the 8th of May, proved to be devoted to the court, and was called the Pension Parliament, and many measures were passed by it during this session, which were calculated to strengthen the monarchy. It was enacted that there should be no legislative power in either Lords or Commons without the king; that the supreme command of all forces, by sea and land, should be vested in the crown; that neither House could lawfully take up arms against the king; and that an oath should be taken to that effect. The bishops were restored to their seats in the House of Peers; the rigour of the law of treason was increased: it was rendered a high misdemeanour to call the king a Papist, though in reality he was one; and the right of petitioning king or Parliament was curtailed. The cavaliers would gladly have struck at the Bill of Indemnity, by doing away with the protection it afforded to existing property; but Clarendon would not venture upon such a proceeding, and the sum of 60,000*l.* only was voted to them. Further vengeance was called for by this Parliament on the Cromwellites; and it was arranged that Sir Harry Vane and General Lambert should suffer during the next recess, although an express promise had been made that their lives should be spared. To stay the appetite of vengeance for the present, Lord Monson, Sir Henry Mildmay, and Sir Robert Wallop were drawn upon sledges, with ropes round their necks, from the Tower to Tyburn, and then sent back to the Tower, there to remain prisoners for life. In this session a Conformity Bill was debated and passed in all its intolerant rigour: it enacted that every clergyman should declare before his congregation his unfeigned assent to everything

contained and prescribed in the Book of Common Prayer; and that every preacher who had not received ordination must submit to that process before the next feast of St. Bartholomew. Several money grants were voted to the king; but his prodigality was such, that they were not sufficient to free him from the burden of debt.

In his emergency Charles sought for a rich wife, and he found one in the person of the Infanta of Portugal; to whom he was married in May, 1662, and received with her a dowry of 350,000*l.*, together with the possession of Tangier and Bombay. But Charles proved a very bad husband; he had been before his marriage surrounded with mistresses, and he now compelled his queen to admit them to her company and to treat them with attention. The money he received with her was quickly squandered; and his necessities then led him to a most disgraceful act — the sale of the town of Dunkirk to the French monarch for 5,000,000 livres, payable in three years by bills of different dates. In the views of every patriot of the time this was a measure full of danger and infamy; and had the diplomatic secrets connected with it which have since come to light been then known, it might have cost Charles his throne.

A few days after the king's marriage three more of the regicides, including Sir Harry Vane, were tried and executed. General Lambert was sentenced to perpetual imprisonment; others had been doomed to suffer, but it was found that these executions did injury to the royal cause, and they were therefore left unmolested. Charles was not of a sanguinary temper; though vice had made him unfeeling, he did not delight in blood; but one of his chief faults consisted in yielding to the clamours of his sycophants. A noted example of this is found in his abandonment of the Lord Chancellor Clarendon, who was considered as the chief adviser of the sale of Dunkirk; and when Charles found that this had brought upon him the popular odium, he deprived him of the great seal. Clarendon withdrew to France to escape a worse fate than the deprivation of office.

The reign of Charles was constantly disturbed with plots and insurrections. In 1664 many persons were convicted of being concerned in a tumultuary assembly in Yorkshire, and were executed. When the Parliament met in March, Charles made use of this tumult; and attributing it to a law passed in 1641, concerning the duration of Parliaments, got this law repealed, and another enacted, setting forth that three years should not elapse after a Parliament had been dissolved without calling another assembly. In this session the Conventicle Act was passed, which forbade the meeting of more than five persons for religious worship, in addition

to the members of a family, under heavy penalties. This act was a direct violation of the promise which Charles had given of toleration; and it had the effect of crowding the prisons with victims: many of whom perished from disease, while those who had property were impoverished with fines.

The latter part of this year was occupied by disputes with Holland, which ended in hostilities. The war was commenced in 1665, and was carried on at first with great spirit under the Duke of York; but as Charles had misapplied the public money which had been granted for the prosecution of this contest, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was pending, were enabled to insult the royal navy of England. They sailed up the River Medway as far as Chatham, and burnt several men-of-war, together with a magazine of stores; but, notwithstanding this treacherous affront, Charles, in June, 1667, concluded a treaty at Breda, by which the colony of New York, in North America, was ceded to the English.

During this war with Holland London was visited by two severe calamities. In the spring of 1665 a plague broke out, which in the course of the year swept away thousands of its inhabitants. Its first symptoms were shivering, sickness, and headache, which were quickly succeeded by delirium and death. It is calculated that the number of deaths amounted to 130,000, though the common annual mortality did not at this time exceed 14,000. So dreadful was the scourge, that all business and legal proceedings were at a stand for months, and every man became a terror to his neighbour and himself. The greatest blow fell upon the poor, arising from the ill ventilation of the houses and the narrowness of the streets in which they resided; and so many died, that it was often found impossible to provide coffins for them, or to have the funeral service read. The bodies had to be taken in carts and thrown into large pits. The plague was followed by another misfortune scarcely less terrible. In the month of September, 1666, a fire broke out in Pudding-lane, which raged and spread until more than half the city of London was destroyed. The ruins covered above 430 acres, including St. Paul's Cathedral, 88 parish churches, most of the public edifices, and more than 13,000 private houses. The property destroyed was estimated at 7,000,000*l.* sterling. On this occasion the exertions of Charles were most praiseworthy. For a time he seemed roused from his idle pleasures; and he not only attended to the wants of the sufferers, but to various plans proposed for the rebuilding of the desolated city. Great improvements were made in the reconstruction of the houses: and they were now built of brick and stone, instead of timber and plaster. The cause of the conflagration was inquired into by the Parliament and the privy-council, but they could not arrive at any

satisfactory conclusion. It was thought by some, when the most violent hostility was felt towards the Papists, that they had been the incendiaries; but there was not the slightest ground for the supposition. Clarendon says that it began in a baker's house where there was a great stock of fagots, and that in the neighbourhood of much combustible matter, such as pitch and resin, and that it spread from house to house until the ruin was completed. He adds, that there was never any probable evidence that "there was any other cause of the woful fire than the displeasure of the Almighty."

For several years afterwards the history of England is a history of intrigue, profligacy, and persecution. At the head of the government was the profligate and versatile Duke of Buckingham, whose influence over Charles was injurious to his morals as a man and his reputation as a monarch; and being himself addicted to sinful pleasures, he greatly pandered to the king's libertinism. Charles cared only for money as the means for these pleasures; and Buckingham's chief care was to provide it for him. In 1670 Charles associated with him in the administration, the nobles Clifford, Arlington, Ashley, and Lauderdale; which administration is known by the appellation of the "Cabal," from the initials of their names. These were all unprincipled men; and their proceedings were such as might have been expected. The profligacy of the court increased; violence and misrule became the order of the day; and from this time to the close of the reign a continual conflict was exhibited between the crown and the people. One of the most disgraceful acts ever committed by a monarch was, on the advice of the Cabal, perpetrated by Charles in 1672. He had for some time anticipated his revenues, and money had been lent to him by the goldsmiths and merchants of London, for which he was to pay eight per cent., till they were repaid by the amounts received at the Exchequer for customs and taxes. The Cabal advised the king to shut the Exchequer, by refusing to pay the money lent, about 1,300,000*l.*; and by this iniquitous measure many were ruined. The king and his Cabal incurred great disgrace by this act, and still more by an attempt to procure money by a direct act of piracy, which failed; and their unpopularity was increased by various measures which they adopted to promote the popish interests in England. Parliament compelled him to withdraw an act of indulgence which Charles had issued, in order to promote Popery, by withholding supplies from him till he had done so; and on his compliance he obtained a grant of 1,200,000*l.* But differences still continued for several years to exist between the legislature and the king; and in 1675 he prorogued Parliament to 1677, which was considered equivalent to a dissolution.

One event, which afterwards proved to be of importance, marked the year 1677. This was the marriage of the Princess Mary, the eldest daughter of the Duke of York, to the Prince of Orange, a popular measure, as the prince was a decided Protestant and next heir to the throne after the Duke of York's family, and the results were ultimately most beneficial to England.

The close of 1678 was marked by an affair which agitated the rest of this reign. This was what was called the discovery of a popish plot. Two profligate clergymen, named Oates and Tonge, gave information to Lord Danby, the treasurer, of a conspiracy which they said had been formed against the king and the Protestant religion by the Jesuits; Oates accusing many persons about the queen and the Duke of York as being implicated. Nothing could be more ridiculous than some part of their narrative; yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the Parliament: and the aged Lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the Duke of York, and other Papists were put to death. The Duke himself, who had rendered himself unpopular by his marriage with the Catholic Princess of Modena, was obliged to leave the country. There was at this time some cause to be apprehensive of popish machinations; but there is reason to believe that the alarm in this instance was wholly unfounded. Perhaps Dryden's view of the plot may be correct: —

"Some truth there was, but dash'd and brew'd with lies."

About this time Charles incurred much odium for the cruelty and insolent audacity with which his minister Lauderdale oppressed Scotland. The people of that country being refused liberty of conscience, met in their conventicles with arms. Some among them did entertain wild principles, but in general they were peaceably disposed. It was, however, required by government that landlords should answer for their tenants and servants that they should not have intercourse with the preachers, or resort to their religious services. This was refused; and troops were then sent into Scotland to suppress the conventicles. Executions took place without number, under the most miserable pretexts; and assassinations were frequently committed by the soldiers without any judicial form whatever. Wordsworth graphically describes the atrocities committed in these words: —

"Mountain and moor, and crowded street, where lie
The headless martyrs of the Covenant,
Slain by compatriot Protestants, that draw
From counsels, senseless as intolerant,
Their warrant. Bodies fall by wild sword-law;
But who would force the soul tilts with a straw
Against a champion cased in adamant."

At the close of 1678 the Parliament, which had sat for seventeen years, and which was hostile to many of the king's views and measures, was suddenly dissolved, and a new one was assembled in March, 1679. As a support against the House of Commons, a new council of thirty individuals of property and consideration, half selected from each party, was appointed in April; but this Parliament manifested sentiments no less unfriendly to the court than the preceding one had done. It passed a law which has ever since proved a great protection against arbitrary or protracted imprisonment. By this law, called the Habeas Corpus Act, civil liberty gained a most precious defence. It enacts, that whoever has a person in custody shall be obliged to show to the courts of law that he has legal authority for his proceedings, and that a prisoner may claim to be discharged on bail, if he is not indicted at the sessions. The House of Commons endeavoured to exclude the Duke of York from the succession to the throne: but the king stopped their proceedings by a prorogation, and even recalled the Duke of York, and excluded the popular ministers, leaving the Earl of Sunderland and others at the head of the government. The Parliament reassembled in 1680. Shaftesbury and his party, in the interval, had endeavoured to excite the people against the court, and had sent up many addresses declaratory of abhorrence of the servile principles of the court party. The whole nation now became divided into the two parties of WHIGS and TORIES — terms which have ever since been in use. The design of the Whigs was to set aside the duke; and they again brought forward the Bill of Exclusion. It was passed by the Commons, but rejected by the Lords; and the former having subsequently resolved not to grant any supply till the duke was excluded, and to forbid the lending of any money to the king, Parliament was again dissolved. But the next Parliament, which met at Oxford in 1681, was equally refractory: the Bill of Exclusion was again urged, and a third dissolution immediately followed. The king never convoked another: but violence and extortion took the place of constitutional government.

At this time there was a reaction against the Whigs, and the Earl of Shaftesbury was committed to the Tower on a charge of high-treason; but a bill against him was thrown out by the grand jury of London, and he subsequently retired to Amsterdam, where he died. Sheriff Pilkington did not escape so easily: having, in 1682, used "scandalous words" against the Duke of York, the ruinous fine of 100,000*l.* was imposed on him, in defiance of an express provision of Magna Charta. In this year many of the corporations were induced or compelled to resign their charters: and in the next year the civic charter of the city of London was declared

forfeited, from irregular proceedings which had taken place in the elections and magistracy.

In the year 1682 the court was strengthened by the detection of a design called the Rye-house Plot. This was a Protestant conspiracy; and the design was to seize, if not assassinate, both the king and the Duke of York, and to establish a republican government. There were at least some who went to that length, as Walcot, Rumsey, and others; but Lord Russell, Algernon Sidney, the Earl of Essex, Lord Grey, the Duke of Monmouth, and Hampden, who were concerned in the plot, wished only to limit the arbitrary measures and check the violent proceedings of the court. Lord Howard was an accomplice, but he became an evidence against the conspirators; and by his evidence alone, which was quite unworthy of credit, they were convicted. Lord Russell, Algernon Sidney, and others were tried, condemned, and executed; the Earl of Essex was found in the Tower with his throat cut; and the Duke of Monmouth, who was the king's natural son, was banished. Hampden escaped with a fine; but the nation saw, with deep affliction, its heroic friends, Russell and Sidney, die upon the scaffold; and posterity still mentions their names with love and veneration. All resistance was now prostrated, and Charles proceeded to lengths of arbitrary power far beyond those of his father; but the nation had suffered so severely from civil contests that there was no inclination to resist. To carry on the government Charles was supplied with money from France, and he obtained more by heavy fines from his subjects on various charges of libel and other political offences. Judge Jeffreys was the great instrument in the atrocities committed. This drunken and brutal judge was sent as a sort of legate on a circuit through the provinces, and he gave the opponents of the court, to use his own vulgar phrase, "many a lick with the wrong side of his tongue." Not only political offenders suffered; the dissenters were proceeded against for going to conventicles, and for not going to church, and many were excommunicated and ruined by prosecutions.

The Scottish Covenanters, too, were still oppressed. On his return from abroad the Duke of York was sent into that country, and his proceedings against them differed little from those of the Inquisition. At this time a minister named Cameron was wandering from place to place at the head of a large body of Covenanters in arms; and the soldiers were ordered to shoot any one who would not declare against him and profess loyalty to the king. Cameron was killed in an encounter; but his followers rallied under Cargill and publicly excommunicated the king and the Duke of York. This increased the severity of the government; more than 2000 persons were outlawed, and numbers of the peasantry were seized and

shot, while wives and kindred were persecuted for harbouring their husbands and relatives. Terrified by these severities, the mass of the people resorted to the churches; but their conduct evidenced that they merely went to escape punishment. Several noblemen were tried, condemned, and executed, and the estates of the sufferers were seized by the duke's retainers; many prisons were crowded with Covenanters; and altogether it was a period of dreadful oppression, of which no end appeared in prospect.

The government of Charles was now as absolute as that of any monarch in Europe, and the nation was swayed by servility and terror. Submissive addresses arrived from all parts of the country; and the University of Oxford condemned even the most moderate theses upon civil liberty. But in this situation of affairs the rod of Charles's power was suddenly broken by death. The last scene in which he was engaged well illustrates his character. "I can never forget," says Evelyn, "the inexpressible luxury and profaneness, gaming, and all dissoluteness, and, as it were, total forgetfulness of God, being Sunday evening, which this day se'nnight I was witness of — the king sitting and toying with his concubines Portsmouth, Cleveland, Mazarine, &c., a French boy singing love-songs in that glorious gallery, while about twenty of the great courtiers and other dissolute persons were at basset round a large table, with a bank of at least 2000*l.* in gold before them." On that night the word went forth that the days of Charles were numbered; he was weighed in the balance of the sanctuary and found wanting. He was seized with a fit of apoplexy, and in six days all was in the dust, after he had reigned twenty-five years from the Restoration.

Charles was endowed with agreeable qualities and some talents; but yet he was a bad king. Unmindful of the fate of his unfortunate father, he abandoned himself to sensual enjoyments and the pleasures of despots, and neglected the welfare of his people. As the only ground of excuse for these great faults, Hume adduces the councils of the "Cavaliers;" those illiberal, selfish courtiers, who since the Restoration pursued nothing with so much zeal as the complete suppression of civil liberty. But these were the men of his own choice; and such a choice was sufficient evidence that his principles were, like theirs, arbitrary and despotic.

JAMES II.

Charles was succeeded by his brother the Duke of York, who ascended the throne without opposition, under the name of James II. He promised the council, who assembled on the death of Charles, that he would endeavour to preserve the government, both in church and state, as it was then by law established; but this promise was soon

forgotten. He not only showed his attachment to the popish religion by attending the ceremonial mass; but he gathered popish noblemen about him and sought by various means to make proselytes to the Romish Church: he even sent an ambassador to Rome to negotiate a reunion between England and the papal see. The Pope, however, was not so destitute of wisdom as the king was of honesty: he recommended James not to hurry matters. The pontiff knew that "the pear was not ripe;" that England was not prepared for his jurisdiction.

James, like his brother, wished to be independent of his Parliament, and on his accession he too became a pensioner of France: Louis sent him 20,000*l.*, which was received with grateful acknowledgments. Another proceeding showed that James adopted the family determination to consider the royal authority paramount to law. The customs had been granted to the late king for life; and James was advised, either to take bonds from the importers, or to keep the amount received separate, till Parliament had directed the disposal of it. A proclamation was issued, however, directing that the duties should be paid and applied as usual, but this was directly opposed to the constitution of the realm.

Another measure adopted by James was desirable in itself, though founded on the principle of the dispensing power: this was the liberation of Papists and Nonconformists from prison. It was probably to be in some degree ascribed to the influence of the celebrated William Penn, — one of the chief of the then new sect of Quakers, — who had long been on terms of personal intimacy with James, and was admitted to long private audiences while men of the highest rank were kept waiting. Even Penn's own house at Kensington was often crowded by persons desirous of obtaining through his influence some share of the court favour, so abundantly lavished upon him, and which, considering the incongruity between his character and that of the king, could not but excite some wonder, and even a suspicion that he sometimes sacrificed the strict rectitude of his principles to the approbation of that corrupt though splendid circle.

The degree of liberty dissenters in general had to expect was soon shown by the persecution of Baxter, a celebrated divine of that period. Baxter was accused of having published sedition in some passages of his Paraphrase on the New Testament; and the brutal Jeffreys, before whose tribunal he was arraigned, stopped all his attempts to defend his writings, fined him 500 marks, and ordered him to be imprisoned till it was paid, and bound to good behaviour for seven years.

The Parliament assembled in May, and partly from fear, partly from confidence, manifested a willingness to comply with all the wishes of the king. At this time James repeated the terms of

his declaration; but he could not refrain from expressions that indicated arbitrary intentions, and this injudicious behaviour was quickly followed by his interference to prevent an address opposed to Popery.

While Parliament was sitting two insurrections took place; one in Scotland, the other in England. That in Scotland was headed by the Earl of Argyle; but he was soon deserted, taken, and executed; that in England was undertaken by the Duke of Monmouth; who, calculating upon the hatred of the people to James, landed at Lyme in Dorsetshire with about 300 followers, and issued a violent declaration against the reigning king. He was well received; crowds flocked to him from all parts, and he assumed the title of king; but he failed in his attempts on Bristol and Bath, was defeated by the royal troops at Sedgemoor, and fled. He was found in a ditch near Woodyates in Dorsetshire; and though he begged for life on any terms, he was executed.

Great severity was exercised on the mass of Monmouth's followers. Colonel Kirk, who had served in Africa, was let loose, with his hardened and cruel soldiery, whom he called his "lambs;" and people were tortured and hung by scores, without even the form of trial: a few only thus selected for summary punishment were allowed to purchase their lives. But even the horrors of martial law were subsequently exceeded by the atrocities perpetrated by Jeffreys, under the forms of justice: he was sent on a "western campaign," accompanied by a body of troops; and hundreds were executed, while thousands were sentenced to transportation, which at that time meant slavery in the West Indies. The heads and limbs of those who were executed were exposed in every quarter of the western districts; and travellers turned with disgust from the highways to avoid these spectacles of horror. The proceedings were not even confined to those who had engaged in the insurrection; Hampden, though in prison, was fined 6,000*l.*; and a person named Prideaux was compelled to pay 15,000*l.*, yet Judge Jeffreys was thanked by James for his proceedings; and the particulars of his brutality, as related in his letters, were often quoted by James with great glee at his levees. But a dreadful impression was made by these cruel and arbitrary measures on the minds of the people; and it was easy to foresee that one day, sooner or later, there would follow a righteous retribution.

The failure of the attempts of Monmouth and Argyle seemed to strengthen the cause of James. He proceeded with his arbitrary measures; and especially those in favour of Popery. In 1687 popish justices of the peace, selected from the very dregs of the people, were established in all the counties. The leading divines of the Established Church had for some time been inculcating passive

obedience; but, as the dangers gathered round them, they began to reconsider the subject, and the result was, that they came to a resolution to oppose the popish measures of the king: being strengthened in this resolution by the conduct of the French monarch who was in close alliance with James, and who had recently revoked the Edict of Nantes, which had assured to the French Protestants the free observance of their religion. James sought to subdue the newly awakened opposition by forming an ecclesiastical commission, with authority to carry out what was deemed expedient, "notwithstanding any law to the contrary." This commission was ordered to suspend Sharp, who had preached against Popery; and the Bishop of Rochester, one of its members who opposed this order, was dismissed. By this and other measures equally arbitrary some few converts were made to the popish religion; but the country still remained essentially Protestant.

James was warned, even by Papists themselves, of the danger of his proceedings in attempting to re-establish Popery; but he still persisted in his course. Monastic establishments were formed; attempts were made to set up Romish seminaries; Magdalen College, Oxford, was ordered to elect a popish head; and when this was refused, most of the fellows were expelled, and Romanists put in their places; while the adherents of Popery were more than ever favoured at court. It was clear what the intentions of James were; and while the nation was agitated from one end to the other by his senseless proceedings, he sent out a declaration ordering all the clergy to read it in their churches. Passive obedience was now generally laid aside, and it was determined at Lambeth that the declaration should not be read. Six bishops met the primate and some of the clergy and nobility, and resolved to petition the king not to insist upon the distribution and reading of the declaration; but this petition was vain; James declared the presentation of it to be an act of rebellion, and the seven bishops were charged with a misdemeanour and conveyed as prisoners to the Tower, the people as they went rushing even into the water to implore their blessing. They were tried on the 29th of June; and though the king thought himself secure of the judges and of a subservient jury, the verdict was "not guilty." James was reviewing his troops at Hounslow Heath when he first discovered this. The loud rejoicings of the metropolis on this occasion was responded to by a shout from the soldiers; and on his inquiring the cause of the clamour, he was informed by Lord Feversham that it was nothing but the expression of joy at the acquittal of the bishops. "Call you that nothing?" was the reply of the angry monarch; "but it shall be the worse for them."

An important event now brought affairs to a crisis. It had for

some time been announced that it was possible there would be a male heir to the crown; but people did not scruple to assert that this heir would be supposititious. At length, in June, 1688, a prince was born. There is little doubt of the fact; but the popular cry was that it was an imposture; the child, they said, had been conveyed to the queen's room in a warming-pan. In this emergency many of the nobility and gentry met and agreed to invite the Prince of Orange to come over with an armed force to redress grievances, and to inquire as to the legitimacy of the infant. Admirals Russell and Herbert promoted discontent against the king amongst the seamen; and the latter, with other noblemen and men of rank and influence, went over to Holland, and offered to aid William. Their offer was accepted, and William embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore the church and state to their due rights. Upon his arrival he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered his best friends: even his daughter the Princess Anne, and her husband George Prince of Denmark, espoused the cause of the Prince of Orange.

Alarmed by the general disaffection, James left London precipitately without making any provision for the administration of the kingdom, and throwing the great seal into the Thames. It was subsequently found by a fisherman. James rode to Feversham; but he was stopped at that place, and brought back to London: he escaped, however, a second time, and reached France on the 23rd of December, where he was received by Louis with open arms. This great Revolution was effected without any bloodshed, with the exception of a few Hollanders who fell in a skirmish. The conduct of James had arrayed the army, the navy, the universities, in a word, the whole nation, against him, and he was dethroned.

The succession of the crown still remained to be settled. Some advised the Prince of Orange to claim it by right of conquest, but he adopted a safer course. Early in 1689 he convoked a national convention of the English at London, and of the Scotch at Edinburgh. The first, composed of a freely elected House of Commons and the legitimate House of Peers, declared that, as King James had evidently designed to overthrow the constitution, had therefore broken the original treaty between the regent and his people, and at last had left the kingdom, the throne was vacant. The Scotch, with more openness, declared that James, by the abuse of his power, had forfeited the crown; and both these assemblies transferred the royal power to William and his consort Mary, the daughter of James. The English convention concurred in this transfer; according to which Prince William was to

administer the government alone during life; but after his death and that of his consort, the Princess Anne was to succeed to the crown, and at all times every Catholic prince was to be excluded from the throne of Great Britain and Ireland. This was called a "declaration of the rights of the English nation;" a declaration which did not alter, but renovate the free constitution of England, raising it from the abject state into which it had been brought by the despotism of the Stuarts. It was "an inestimable document of the final and glorious salvation of the national liberties, after a long and difficult contest; a positive acknowledgment of the most precious natural rights; a brilliant triumph of rational legitimacy over that of absurd haughtiness and audacious power." Thus was England freed from the rule of a persecuting bigot, and thus ended the government of a race of monarchs whose leading principle had been to consider that their will was to be law to their subjects, and that the duty of their people was "passive obedience."

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.

1660. Twenty-nine of the regicides tried, and ten executed. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, and Pryde disinterred, and buried again under a gallows.

1661. A new charter granted to the East India Company, by which it was invested with many sovereign rights.

1662. The town of Dunkirk sold to the French by Charles II. for 400,000*l.*

The first pendulum clock made in England by a Dutchman.

1663. The Royal Society incorporated by charter.

The reflecting telescope constructed by Sir James Gregory.

1665. The great Plague of London began in May, and raged the whole year.

1666. The great Fire of London began September 2.

1667. De Ruyter, the Dutch admiral, sailed up the Thames, and burnt several English ships of war near Chatham.

1668. St. James's Park planted, and made a public thoroughfare.

1669. Milton's Paradise Lost published.

1675. Greenwich Observatory founded.

Newton's great discoveries in optics completed.

1677. Marriage of the Prince of Orange to the Princess Mary.

1679. The Habeas Corpus Act passed.

1681. A patent granted to William Penn for the settlement of a province, afterwards called Pennsylvania, in North America.

1683. Lord William Russell beheaded.

1684. Potatoes planted for the first time in open fields in England.

1685. A large body of Protestant silk weavers, driven by persecution from France, settle in Spitalfields.

1688. Many of the English nobility invite William, Prince of Orange, to assist them against King James.

CHAP. XVIII.

HISTORY OF THE RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, LITERATURE, ARTS, COMMERCE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, ETC., OF THIS PERIOD.

Religion. — DURING the period of the Commonwealth a system of almost universal toleration was adopted. There were many varieties of dissenters; Independents, Brownists, Millenaries, Antinomians, Anabaptists, Arminians, Libertines, Familists, Enthusiasts, Seekers, Perfectists, Socinians, Arians, Anti-Trinitarians, Anti-Scripturists, and Sceptics; but so long as they refrained from disturbing the government or peace of the country, practical toleration was extended to all. The most persecuted sect in these times was that of the Quakers, then recently founded by George Fox, and whose indiscreet zeal frequently brought them into great trouble: so much had they suffered, indeed, under the republican government, while all other denominations of religionists remained unmolested, that they alone, of all the minor sects, were prepared to welcome or to acquiesce in the restoration of Charles II. to his throne. At the Restoration liberty of conscience was promised and guaranteed; but in the reign of Charles great rigour and severity were exercised against all nonconformists to episcopacy, which was again established with a high hand both in England and Scotland. James II. was more imprudent, harsh, and arbitrary even than his predecessor. It has been seen, in the narrative of his reign, that he sought by all the means in his power to bring his subjects over to Popery; and some, both of the clergy and laity, were induced to change their faith; but the community still remained essentially Protestant: it was, indeed, the encouragement which he gave to Popery, that deprived James of his crown: and a witty courtier of Louis XIV., in whose court the dethroned monarch took refuge, said, as he passed, "There goes a simpleton who has lost three kingdoms for a mass!"

Government. — The character of the government in this period may be treated of in few words. Unwarned by the fate of his father, Charles II., on his restoration, was bent upon the recovery of the ancient powers of the crown; but the nation soon saw into his designs, and resolved to clear away those remnants of despotism which still made a part of royal prerogative. The laws against heretics were repealed; a statute for holding triennial Parliaments was enacted; and the Habeas Corpus Act, that great barrier of personal liberty, was passed. The reign of James affords

a most memorable lesson both to kings and people. Hurried away by a spirit of despotism and popish zeal, he not only demanded unlimited obedience from his subjects, but sought to establish, on the ruins of a religion most dear to the nation, a faith which repeated acts of the legislature had proscribed. Seeing their liberty thus boldly attacked, even in its first principles, the people had recourse to the remedy which reason and nature dictated. They withdrew their allegiance from James, and considered themselves absolved from their oath to a monarch who had himself disregarded the oath he had made to his subjects, and thus broken the bond between them. The throne was declared vacant, and a new line of succession established, when an advantage was taken of the rare opportunity for king and people to enter into a compact. The Revolution of 1688, therefore, is the grand era of the English constitution. The Great Charter had marked out the limits within which the royal authority ought to be confined; some outworks were raised in the reign of Edward I.; but the circumvallation was not completed till the Revolution which seated the Prince of Orange on the throne of England.

Literature.—Few works of genius of the first class appeared in England during the Commonwealth. There were, indeed, men of talents living in that period; but for the most part it was a time when men wrote and thought as they acted, merely for the passing moment, and not for posterity. At the Restoration, however, a change for the better came over the spirit of literature; and many celebrated productions were issued from the press during the reigns of Charles and James II. Among the poetical writers may be mentioned Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Butler, Denham, Davenant, Otway, Lee, Crowne, Etheridge, Wycherly, and last, and greatest of all, the immortal Milton, whose fine epic poem, Paradise Lost, has never been equalled in the whole range of ancient or modern literature. The most distinguished prose writers were Baxter, Cudworth, Hobbes, Dr. Henry More, John Bunyan, Sir William Temple, Izaak Walton, Archbishop Leighton, Dr. Isaac Barrow, Dryden, and Clarendon. The productions of these authors are, for the most part, to be found among the current literature of the present day; and some of them are of an undying nature, and will be familiar to the latest posterity.

Arts.—The history of the fine arts during the present period may be dismissed with a very short notice; for it was a period of general mediocrity—the age of the French school, the success of which was not equal to its ambition. Of Antonio Verrio, a Neapolitan by birth, whom Charles II. invited into England, and who was one of the best painters of his time, Walpole says that he was "an excellent painter for the sort of subjects on which he was

employed; that is, without much invention, and with less taste, his exuberant pencil was ready at painting out gods, goddesses, kings, emperors, and triumphs over those public surfaces on which the eye never rests long enough to criticise, and where we should be sorry to place the works of a better master; I mean ceilings and staircases. The New Testament and the Roman History cost him nothing but ultramarine; that, and marble columns and marble steps he never spared." This was the general character of the historical paintings of this period. In portrait painting the reign of Charles II. was illustrated by the works of Sir Peter Lely, a native of Westphalia, who was the most distinguished portrait painter of his time; but his works are by no means equal to those of his predecessor in fame, Vandyke. "How came you, Sir Peter," asked a nobleman, "to have so great a reputation? you know you are no great painter." "My Lord," replied Lely, "I know that I am not; but I am the best you have." The paintings of still life in this period were more remarkable than the portraits. There were several eminent Dutch painters in this style, Varelst being the most celebrated, who was patronised by the Duke of Buckingham, and whom few have ever equalled as a flower painter. Sculpture was at this time almost exclusively applied to decoration: and there were only two artists who excelled in this art, namely, Gabriel Cibber, a native of Holstein, and Grinling Gibbons; the latter of whom was the most celebrated. The art of engraving now made considerable progress. Faithorne was the best engraver of the age; but there were several foreigners who vied with him in excellence, as David Loggan, Abraham Blooteling, Gerard Valek, and Peter Vanderbank. The invention of mezzotint had been introduced into England by Prince Rupert, and the superior excellence of our engravers had by this time made it into an English art. In no country has it been practised with such success as in England.

Music had been almost discarded from England during the Commonwealth; but at the Restoration it was again revived as an art. Organs were once more set up in cathedrals, choirs were re-formed throughout the kingdom, and many musical composers appeared, the most celebrated of whom was Henry Purcell. The works of Purcell form a part of our national wealth; they surpass everything of the kind that England had before produced, and some of them yet continue unrivalled by any musicians of English birth. Up to the period of his decease he had no equal, either in England, France, Germany, or Italy. Secular music also received attention at this period; and regular concerts were established at Oxford and in London, though their character was far inferior to those of the present age. The most noted concerts in London were performed

in a room over the coal-shop of one Thomas Britton, who lived in Aylesbury-street, Clerkenwell; but though the place of resort was humble, it was frequented by the young, the gay, and the fair of all ranks, including the highest order of the nobility.

Commerce. — From the period of the Restoration to that of the Revolution trade appears to have been upon the whole more considerable, and more steady in its progress, than in any former period of the same length. The two Dutch wars, by disturbing the trade of that republic, promoted the navigation of Britain; and after Charles had made a separate peace with the States, his subjects enjoyed the trade of Europe unmolested. How far commerce had increased may be seen from the following figures. In 1622 the entire value of the exports and imports was 4,939,751*l.*; but in 1669 the imports alone were 4,196,139*l.*, and the exports 2,063,274*l.* These figures indicate a steady progress of mercantile activity and national wealth. It was in this period that tea was first brought into England. Pepys, in his Diary, records, in 1661, "I sent for a cup of tea—a Chinese drink—of which I never drank before;" and the poet Waller has some lines on the birthday of Queen Catherine, from which it would seem that her example brought this new beverage into fashionable use: —

> "The best of queens and best of herbs we owe
> To that bold nation which the way did show
> To the fair region where the sun does rise,
> Whose rich productions we so justly prize.
> The Muse's friend, tea, does our fancy aid;
> Repress those vapours which the head invade;
> And keeps that palace of the soul serene,
> Fit on her birthday to salute the queen."

Tea was first imported by the East India Company, whose charter was renewed by Charles II.; but the quantity brought into the country for many years was very limited. In 1664 the company could only procure 2 lbs. 2 oz., which cost them 40*s.* a pound; and in 1666 they had to pay 50*s.* a pound for 22 lbs. 14 oz. These two parcels were both presented to the king. Their first considerable importation was in 1669, when they received two canisters, containing 143 lbs. 8 oz., from Bantam. From this time their importations gradually increased; but it was not till after the Revolution that the consumption of tea began to be general in England.

The growth of London during the present period proceeded at an accelerated rate, and several acts were passed for its improvement. One of these acts ordered several "common highways and new-built streets" to be new paved; directed the inhabitants to sweep the streets before their respective houses twice a week,

under a penalty of 3*s.* 4*d.* for every instance of neglect; and commanded every person whose house fronted the street to hang out candles in lanterns, or otherwise, in some part of his house next the street, every night between Michaelmas and Lady-day, from dusk until nine in the evening, under a penalty of one shilling. The same act authorised the lord mayor and City authorities to receive subscriptions for repairing certain streets, which were so narrow that they incommoded coaches, carts, and passengers, and were prejudicial to commerce and traffic. By other acts two new parishes were erected at the west-end: one, that of St. Anne's, Westminster, consisting principally of streets that had recently been built on a piece of ground called Kemp's Field; the other, that of St. James's, Westminster, comprehending Jermyn and other neighbouring streets, lately erected on ground called St. James's Fields. This proves the increase of London; but its size and importance were insignificant when compared with those of the present proud city.

After the Restoration the money of the Commonwealth was all called in, and a new gold and silver coinage was struck, similar to that of the reign of Charles I. There was, however, one marked difference in the coinage of these two periods. On all the English money of Charles II. his head is made to look to the left, being the opposite direction to that in which his father's head is placed; and ever since it has been observed as a rule to make two successive sovereigns look in opposite directions on their respective coinages. James II. coined gold pieces of the value of 5*l.*: after his abdication he coined money in Ireland out of old brass guns and kitchen utensils; and when brass failed him, he fabricated crowns, half-crowns, shillings, and sixpences out of pewter.

Manners and Customs.—The furniture of this period continued nearly the same as in the preceding; but it may be mentioned that the famous manufactory of Gobelins tapestry was established in France in 1677, and that specimens of it soon appeared on the walls of the palaces and mansions of our nobility. A great change took place in the female costume of the upper classes in the reign of Charles II.; but citizens' wives and countrywomen continued to wear the high-crowned hat, the French hood, the laced stomacher, and the yellow starched handkerchief. At this period it would appear, from the Diaries of Pepys and Evelyn, that ladies began to paint their faces, to have their hair "frizzed up to the ear," and to wear perukes and vizards. There were at this time three distinct fashions of male costume, which it is unnecessary to describe; it may be sufficient to say that in their superabundance of ornament and finery they were in direct opposition to the plain and humble garb of the Puritans.

It was not only in dress that the Royalists differed from the Puritans in manners, the two parties were no less strikingly contrasted. Swearing, which during the Commonwealth had been punished by a fine, and profligate conversation, were so common, that a young nobleman or man of family was accounted no gentleman nor person of honour who could not, in two hours' sitting, invent some new modish oath, or make lampoons and drolleries even on the sacred Scriptures; and the ladies themselves were as profligate as the king and his nobles; and would game, and swear, and drink, and sport with as easy a conscience as the most dissolute libertine. Combined with this spirit of licentiousness was a reckless disregard of human life. In the reign of Charles II. the rage for duelling increased beyond all former precedent. Fatal encounters were of daily occurrence, from the worst of causes, or for no cause at all. In a word, the whole head of society in the upper classes was sick, the whole heart faint with corruptions. But, notwithstanding the frivolity and profligacy of the higher classes, the bulk of the community still retained much of the good old English spirit. The Puritans generally, and some even of the Royalists, regarded with contempt the dissoluteness which had become so fashionable; and this was especially the case in the country, to which the contagion of the court had failed to reach. Persons of this class adhered to the primitive hours of their forefathers in rising, transacting business, and going to rest; and to the simplicity of life which had distinguished the English in former periods.

The chief amusements of this time were similar to those which had been in vogue before the days of the Commonwealth. Abhorrence of the drama had been one of the chief distinctions of Puritanism; and therefore a habit of play-going became a badge of loyalty after the Restoration. The theatres were reopened, and their benches crowded more eagerly than ever; they absorbed indeed the chief taste and talent of the country. All the sports of the reign of James I. and Charles I. were resuscitated; and to these were added foot-racing, and boat and yacht-racing. Skating, also, was newly introduced, or rather, perhaps, a revived amusement in England at this time; and was performed "after the manner of the Hollanders;" and most of the old holidays were still observed, according to the old English fashion

CHAP. XIX.

THE PERIOD FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

GREAT BRITAIN.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	SPAIN.	PRUSSIA.	RUSSIA.
1689. William & Mary	Louis XIV. (1643)	Leopold I. (1658)	...	...	Peter the Great (1685).
1694. William III.	...	...	...	...	...
1700. ...	...	...	Philip V.	...	...
1702. Anne	...	...	...	...	...
1705. ...	...	Joseph I.	...	...	...
1711. ...	...	Charles VI.	...	...	...
1713. ...	...	...	...	Frederic-William I.	...
1714. George I.	...	...	...	...	...
1715. ...	Louis XV.	...	...	...	...
1725. ...	...	...	...	...	Catherine I.
1727. George II.	...	...	...	...	Peter II.
1730. ...	...	...	...	...	Anne.
1740. ...	...	...	...	Frederic the Great	Iwan III.
1741. ...	...	...	...	...	Elizabeth.
1742. ...	...	Charles VII.	...	...	...
1745. ...	...	Francis I. & Maria Theresa	Ferdinand VI.	...	...
1759. ...	...	...	Charles III.	...	...
1760. George III.	...	...	...	...	...

WILLIAM AND MARY.

WILLIAM, Prince of Orange, had been invited to England by a coalition of parties, and was welcomed with every sign of public rejoicing. The nobility and gentry thronged his palaces; the populace, gaily adorned with orange ribbons, exulted in the streets; and festivals, bonfires, and illuminations celebrated the auspicious event.

But William was too wise a man to estimate these noisy demonstrations at more than their true value. He knew by how frail a

tie the various factions were held together; and that, whenever this should be broken, their mutual hatred and jealousy would revive, and he would find himself rather in the position of the leader of a party than of the king of the whole nation. He was the acknowledged sovereign of England and Scotland; but he soon began to experience the difficulty of governing a people who were more ready to command than to obey their superiors. His reign commenced with an attempt similar to that which had been the principal cause of all the disturbances of the preceding reign, and which had ultimately excluded the monarch from the throne. As he had been bred a Calvinist, and always expressed an abhorrence of persecution, the Presbyterians and other Protestant dissenters considered him as their peculiar protector, and entered into his interests with the utmost zeal. But for this very reason the friends of episcopacy became jealous of his proceedings, and employed all their influence in thwarting his measures. In his first Parliament William proposed a repeal of the Test Act, conceiving that the great dread of the Papists would be removed with the removal of a Roman Catholic king, and that the professions of good-will which had passed between the Established Church and the dissenters would lead to some amicable and lasting agreement. The repeal, however, was rejected by the Lords by a great majority; and at the same time the House eagerly grasped at a clause recommended by William, which went to dispense with the oaths of the bishops and Established clergy to the new government. But the dissenters in the Commons showed as little regard to the consciences of churchmen as the churchmen had shown to theirs; and an amendment was moved and carried in the Commons, obliging the established clergy to take the oaths of allegiance, under pain of suspension, to be followed in six months by deprivation. The Lords, in their turn, rejected this amendment; conferences ensued, and all that the Commons would allow was, that the king should have power to grant, during his pleasure, a third of their benefices to any twelve clergymen who should incur deprivation by refusing to take the oath. William was justly surprised at the religious animosities of his new subjects; but he still hoped to make all sects live peaceably together, as he had seen them do in Holland. He attempted to carry a bill of comprehension, by which he flattered himself that the church, the kirk, and the conventicle might by degrees be amalgamated; but both Lords and Commons united in defeating this project, though in the end they agreed upon a free toleration to all Christian sects except the Roman Catholic.

The fugitive King James met with a most brilliant reception at the court of Versailles; and the French monarch undertook to re-establish him on the throne of England. Ireland was to be made

ber, where he was received by the Duke of Northumberland, captain of the Life-guards, and the lords of the regency. His subjects of Hanover had witnessed his departure with tears; and his English subjects received him with joy and acclamation. On his arrival he showed marked attention to the leading Whigs; but he looked coldly on the Tories, who had equally run to welcome him to England. He would not admit some of the leaders of the party into his presence, while others were barely permitted to kiss his hand. This was ominous; and it was followed by an instantaneous and total change in every office of honour and advantage. The Tories were excluded from all power: which was wholly engrossed by the Whigs. These early marks of aversion to the former party alienated the minds of many from his person and government who otherwise might have served him with zeal and affection; and the number of malcontents in England was considerably increased by the king's undisguised attachment to the Whig faction. The clamour that the church was in danger was now revived, jealousies were excited, seditious libels published, and dangerous tumults raised throughout the kingdom.

In April, 1715, General Stanhope delivered to the House of Commons all the papers relating to the late negotiations of peace and commerce, as well as to the cessation of arms, and moved that they might be referred to a committee. These and other papers relating to a treasonable correspondence with France had been seized in the possession of Bolingbroke, Strafford, and the poet Prior; and, as the committee appointed was a thoroughly Whig committee, the result was such as might have been expected. Mr. Walpole was appointed chairman, and after the lapse of two months he declared that the report of the committee was ready, and moved that a warrant might be issued by the speaker to apprehend several persons, especially Mr. Thomas Harley and Prior, who, being in their places, were immediately taken into custody. Walpole then impeached Lords Bolingbroke and Oxford; and when the latter appeared in the House next day he found himself avoided as though he had been a viper, and retired with some confusion: while the Duke of Ormond was threatened with impeachment, and consulted his safety by withdrawing from the kingdom. His correspondence with the Pretender was less susceptible of proof than that of Oxford; but, as he could not expect an impartial trial, he fled. The result of the Earl of Oxford's trial was, that he was sent to the Tower. But he was accompanied thither by a large concourse of people, who exclaimed, at the top of their voices, "High church, Ormond, and Oxford for ever!" Lord Bolingbroke, whose treasonable conduct was more evident than either that of Oxford or Ormond, fled to France; and as neither he nor Ormond

surrendered themselves within the time limited, their names and armorial bearings were erased from the list of peers; inventories were taken of their personal estates; and the duke's achievement as Knight of the Garter was taken down from St. George's Chapel at Windsor. Prior was kept in close custody, and no person was admitted to see him without an order from the speaker.

The easy accession of the House of Hanover, after all the plots and plans that had been laid, and all the pledges that had been given to the Pretender, struck the world with astonishment. Efforts, however, were not wanting to shake the new throne, and the High Church party especially applied their broad shoulders to this work. By sermons and by pamphlets they irritated the populace with suspicions of the king's temper and orthodoxy. They painted his religion in bad colours, representing him as puritanical; and drew an odious distinction between a native and a foreign prince: and they prophesied, moreover, that England would be eaten up by Hanoverian rats and other foreign vermin. Their exertions were not without their fruits. In some places the disciples of orthodoxy not only cried, "Down with the dissenters!" but actually did pull down their places of worship. As for the German attendants on their Majesties, they could scarcely move out of doors without being insulted. One day a German lady of the court, being insulted as she passed through the city of London, put her head out of the carriage-window, and exclaimed in broken English, "Why do you abuse us, good peoples? We come for all your goods." "Yes," replied a fellow in the mob, "and for our chattels too!" This lady, however, was known to be a person of very bad character.

In the midst of this personal unpopularity of George and his court numerous papers in behalf of the Pretender were written, printed, and circulated. He was known, in fact, to be a bigot and a coward; but he was represented in these papers as candid, tolerant, and benevolent; the very paragon of a prince, in short, besides resembling in his countenance Charles II. There was, nevertheless, no chance of an invasion in his favour being attended with success in England; King George was unpopular, it is true, but not with the entire body of the people; and even those who clamoured against him for the most part preferred him, as a Protestant, with all his faults, to a Papist, even though represented as a prince of the most perfect qualities. There was, however, scope for action in favour of the Pretender in the sister kingdom Scotland; for the dissatisfaction occasioned in that country by the Union had never been wholly appeased; and as the disaffected had no hopes of dissolving that treaty, they determined to support the Pretender. They maintained a correspondence with the malcontents in England, who, finding themselves now totally excluded from any share

and savage butchery of every man, woman, and child who inhabited the valley.

A hundred and twenty soldiers, under the command of a Captain Campbell, were sent to Glencoe; and as they made no declaration of any hostile purpose, they were kindly and hospitably received by their destined victims. After living with them for twelve days, apparently on the most friendly terms, eating, drinking, and making merry with them at their simple firesides, Captain Campbell, who was a fit instrument for such a work, appointed the night on which he and his men were suddenly to rise and murder their unsuspecting hosts. The design was not entirely successful; for some expressions of disgust used by one of the soldiers at the business he was commanded to assist in, had attracted the attention of the chief's eldest son. Numbers of the people escaped; but it was in many cases only to die of cold and famine in the snowy wilderness around their glen: and the survivors who afterwards crept back to the spot where their houses had been, found it turned into a desert, and houses and furniture, flocks and herds, and implements of husbandry, all gone, so that no means were left them of supporting their existence. Three years afterwards a legal inquiry into the massacre of Glencoe was instituted; but while the chief criminal, Sir John Dalrymple, was merely dismissed from his office, the agent of his crime, Captain Campbell, and three subordinate officers, were declared guilty of murder. In the end, however, they all escaped the punishment by human law; and the whole transaction has left the darkest spot that rests on the reign of William.

Having settled the affairs of the nation and made preparations for equipping a formidable fleet, William embarked for Holland, which was then at war with France. The French troops were investing Mons in Belgium; and William made preparations to relieve that place; but before he could arrive that strong town was captured. After the fall of Mons he hastened back to England, as several conspiracies against his government had been detected during his absence. But, notwithstanding this, he again returned to Holland to lead the Dutch against the French in Flanders. He was successful in driving the French before him: but in those days general engagements were rare things; and, except in sieges, soldiers usually consumed more shoe-leather than gunpowder. As soon as the French retired, William gave up the command to Prince Waldeck, and returned once more to England. He met his Parliament on the 22nd of October, 1691; and it was unanimously resolved that a supply should be granted for the carrying on of a vigorous war with France. In this Parliament a poll-tax bill was carried, by which all persons, except children, servants, and paupers, were

to pay a shilling every quarter: every gentleman of 300*l.* a year twenty shillings a quarter; every person worth property amounting to 300*l.*, ten shillings; every clergyman or teacher worth 80*l.* a year, twenty shillings; every lord of Parliament, ten pounds; and nonjurors double. This exhibited the expensiveness of a continental war, and also the unskilfulness of the legislature at this period in the art of taxation.

Parliament was prorogued on the 29th of February, 1692, and William was again soon on his way to Holland; but an important event took place in this his third absence: Louis had resolved to invade England once more, in order to restore James to his throne; and the exiled monarch repaired to La Hogue, and was ready to embark with a considerable force on board the French fleet commanded by the Count de Torville. The ministry of England heard of these proceedings, and Admiral Russell was ordered to put to sea with all expedition. Russell was joined by a Dutch squadron, and a memorable battle was fought at La Hogue, in which a great part of the French fleet was destroyed. This victory proved so decisive, that during the remainder of the war the French would not venture another battle by sea, and James returned in despair to St. Germains. Heaven, he said, fought against him; but he nevertheless continued his efforts to recover his crown in every possible way; though after the battle of La Hogue he never could have entertained a rational hope of success.

In the meantime the French had taken Namur in Flanders, in the very face of William's forces, and had defeated the English at Steinkirk; after which little or nothing was done in this campaign. But in the month of August a conspiracy was discovered which aimed at the life of William. Two assassins were hired to destroy him by the fugitive James, and the act was connived at by Louis: their guilt was proclaimed to the world by the conviction of their agents and the publication of the confession which these men made before the military tribunal by which they were tried. William returned from the Continent in October; and this atrocious design of assassination was found to have raised him wonderfully in the people's affection. A better feeling arose among his subjects than had hitherto existed, though there were still some disaffected towards his government. While he was in Flanders the Earl of Marlborough and others had been accused of conspiring to restore King James, and they were arrested and placed in the Tower; but there does not appear to have been conclusive evidence of their guilt on this occasion, though it is certain that Marlborough was repeatedly guilty of infamous treachery towards the king and the nation he professed to serve, by giving information to King James, and through him to the French, of intended movements of the

English forces. After the defeat of the French fleet, however, the prisoners were liberated; and on the meeting of Parliament, Marlborough, Scarsdale, and Huntingdon complained, in their places in the House of Lords, of the treatment they had received, and of the conduct of the judges who had refused to bring them to trial, conformably to the Habeas Corpus Act; and the House of Lords came to the resolution "That no peer should be remanded to prison by the King's Bench upon his appearing before them by virtue of the said act, after having entered his prayer to be tried, unless there appear against him two witnesses upon oath, or in a capacity to be sworn." These lords had been held to bail, and a day was appointed to consider in what manner they should be discharged from their recognisances; but the king terminated the business by discharging them himself, and the ministers were exonerated by a bill of indemnity. It is said that Marlborough still continued to intrigue with James, and that when he was all the while begging employment from William. It is probable that his loyalty depended on a good place in the government, and that he would serve best whoever would give him most.

In this session a bill was passed, entitled, "A Bill touching free and impartial Proceedings in Parliament," which had the effect of banishing all the servants of the crown from the House of Commons. A bill for triennial Parliaments was also passed, which provided for annual sessions and a fresh election every three years. William, however, refused to give his assent to this bill; thus venturing on an exercise of prerogative which no ordinary circumstances could reconcile either with prudence or with a constitutional administration of the government. The Commons, however, felt the necessity of maintaining the present government, and they granted liberal supplies for the war.

Early in 1693 William had returned to the allied armies on the Continent, and a great battle was fought at Lauden, in which the French were again victorious. William was subsequently reinforced, and again offered battle; but it was avoided, and the campaign then ended. In the same year the French captured a large number of merchant vessels at sea.

On his return to England in November, William found considerable discontent prevailing; on which he resolved to change his ministry. Fresh efforts were made for the renewal of the war, additional taxes were imposed, and the English troops were increased to 83,000 men. The public debt at this period was 34,000,000*l.*, and the large rate of interest then paid, with the sacrifices made for raising money, rapidly swelled the amount of the principal. The necessity for further advances led to the institution of a national bank; whose capital, at first 1,200,000*l.*, was to be lent

to government at three per cent. This amount was raised in ten days; and thus the Bank of England was established, the act for raising the capital of the bank receiving the royal assent in April, 1694. About the same time the East India Company obtained a new charter, in return for a loan of 2,000,000*l.*

William left London again to join the allies immediately after these domestic affairs were settled; and this year their arms were attended with great success, and both by sea and land the progress of the French was checked. "I am glad," said William, when he met his Parliament in November, "to meet you here, when I can say our affairs are in a better posture, both by sea and land, than when we parted last. The enemy has not been in a condition to oppose our fleets in these seas; and our sending so great a force into the Mediterranean has disappointed their designs, and left us a prospect of further success. With respect to the war by land, I think I may say, that this year a stop has been put to the progress of the French arms." Admiral Russell had been employed in the Mediterranean; and he cleared that sea of the French, relieved Barcelona, blockaded Toulon, and had made the English flag respected from one end of the inland sea to the other. Another part of the English navy had bombarded and nearly destroyed Dieppe and Havre de Grace, and had thrown the whole French coast into an agony of consternation. By land the allied forces had captured the town and Castle of Huy; and the French, under Delorges, had been defeated with great loss on the Rhine, by the Prince of Baden. The main army of the French, however, under the Duke of Luxembourg, was enabled to cover French Flanders from a threatened invasion of the allies. Parliament was satisfied with the advantages gained; loyal addresses were returned to the king's speech, and supplies to the amount of 5,000,000*l.* were readily voted. In this session the Triennial Parliament Bill was again passed, for this time William gave his assent to it, and the act was received by the nation with great joy.

The consent of William to this bill was attributed by many to the dangerous illness of the queen, whose death, it was imagined, might weaken his right, and lead to fresh and more dangerous conspiracies. Her Majesty's life had been one of continued anxiety during the king's absence on the Continent. Her constitution, which had never been a good one, was much weakened by mental suffering; and in this state of mind she was attacked by smallpox of the most malignant sort, which proved fatal. In her last hours she was attended by the Archbishop of Canterbury, Dr. Tennison, who only a few days before had succeeded the wise and excellent Tillotson. Mary had much private discourse with Dr. Tennison, and was calm and resigned, seeming to desire death rather

than life. She died on the 28th of December, in the thirty-third year of her age, deeply regretted by the nation at large, though the bigoted partisans of James rejoiced at her death. One Jacobite divine impudently preached a sermon from the words of Jehu respecting Jezebel: "Go see now this cursed woman, and bury her; for she is a king's daughter." Few queens, however, died more deservedly regretted than Mary. She was an exemplary wife and a good sovereign. William was thought to be neither a fond husband, nor subject to feelings of a delicate nature: but this opinion may have been founded on a mistaken judgment of his character; for he mourned her loss unfeignedly, and for some weeks after her death, says Burnet, he was so little master of himself, that he was not capable of attending to business, or of seeing company. The death of Mary brought into notice the Princess Anne, as the next heir to the throne; and the king assigned apartments to her in St. James's Palace, and presented her with her sister's jewels: but this was more from political motives than from affection for her person.

WILLIAM III.

William, however, shook off his grief to rejoin the allies on the Continent; and in the year 1695 he followed up their successes, and the strongly fortified city of Namur was captured. The French general Luxembourg died early in this year; and he was succeeded by Villeroy, a man far inferior to him in abilities. The French suffered many reverses in this campaign: from the capture of Namur, indeed, William had the advantage till the close of the war. On his returning, as usual, to England, after the campaign, a new Parliament met, in which the strength of the Whigs was found to be considerably increased. Further efforts were made for the war, and a recoinage of the money in circulation was agreed upon; a sum of 1,200,000*l.* being granted for that purpose, to be raised by taxes upon windows. The restoration of the coinage, which by clipping and other circumstances had become greatly reduced in value, was one of the most important benefits of William's reign. This Parliament also made an effort to restore the national honesty: a more difficult task than that of the restoration of the coinage; for bribery and corruption were then almost universal. The Duke of Leeds, Sir John Trevor, and others were accused of receiving money from the city of London and the East India Company; and Sir John Trevor was expelled from the Commons; but the investigations were stopped by the prorogation of Parliament.

After the death of Queen Mary the friends of James renewed their exertions to restore that monarch to the throne. In 1696 another plot against King William was discovered; an association

having been formed to seize him and convey him to France, or put him to death in case of resistance. Preparations had also been made for an invasion of England; but all these attempts proved abortive. The designed invasion was given up, and several of the conspirators were executed, whilst the dangers to which William was exposed had the effect of giving stability to his throne; for the Commons now entered into an association binding themselves to assist each other in support of the king and his government. There is clear proof that all these designs were encouraged by James and the King of France, although those who suffered at Tyburn denied that he was privy to the scheme of assassination. James himself took great pains to prove his innocence on the present occasion. He remarked to Erizzo, the Venetian ambassador at Paris, "As to any attempt upon the person of the Prince of Orange, I am wholly ignorant; and though to face an enemy at the head of his troops, in my opinion, can never be reputed an assassination, I do swear that I know nothing of it." But these words rather convict him of guilt, for he seemed to have held the notion entertained by some of the assassins themselves, that because William might have a few guards with him, the falling upon him would have been warfare, and not murder. The commission which James had given to his adherents also proves his guilt. It was conceived in these words:—

"James R.

"Our will and pleasure is, and we do hereby fully authorise, strictly require, and expressly command our loving subjects to rise in arms and make war upon the Prince of Orange, the usurper of our throne, and all his adherents, and to seize for our use all such forts, towns, strongholds, within our dominion of England, as may serve to further our interest, and to do from time to time such other acts of hostility against the Prince of Orange and his adherents as may conduce most to our service, we judging this the properest, justest, and most effectual means of procuring our restoration and their deliverance; and we do hereby indemnify them for what they shall act in pursuance of this our royal command.

"Given at our court of St. Germains en Liége, the 27th of December, 1695."

In this commission assassination is evidently suggested.

In the year 1696 William again joined the allies on the Continent; but this campaign was far from brilliant, the only exploit of the year by his forces being the destruction of a magazine of ammunition and military stores at Givet. In the next year the French subjected Barcelona. The contest was also carried on in America, Africa, and the East Indies. Colonies were lost on both sides, and commerce—the promotion of which was a material

object in William's policy — was almost destroyed. The accumulated miseries of war at length disposed the contending powers for peace. France especially, the exertions of which had been excessive, felt exhausted; and Louis, now in the decline of life, desired repose, or at least respite, in order to gather new strength for what he considered a far more important transaction relating to the Spanish succession. A peace, therefore, was concluded in September, 1697, at Ryswick; by which France engaged to restore the Spanish possessions, and not to disturb King William. The main principle of the treaty was to bring back matters to the state in which they had been before the commencement of the war; and by it the hopes James had entertained of recovering his throne were cut off; and though he appealed and protested against the recognition of William as King of England, it was in vain.

William returned to England in November, and was received with great joy. Addresses were presented from every part of the kingdom, congratulating him on the conclusion of a peace in which honourable and reasonable terms had been acquired by his wisdom, fortitude, and perseverance. But the peace did not promise to be lasting. Louis was slow in evacuating the fortresses and territories which he was bound to give up; he still kept the exiled Stuarts at Versailles, and had in no sense renounced his hopes for that family. William saw his danger, and recommended Parliament to provide for a land force, declaring that England would not be safe without such a one. But a standing army at this time was objected to as inconsistent with a free government, and as absolutely destructive of the English constitution; and the question was carried in the Commons against the court, whilst all the forces raised since the year 1680 were ordered to be disbanded. Parliament, however, in this session, settled a revenue upon William for life of the amount of 700,000*l.* per annum. Several measures were adopted this session for the suppression of vice and profaneness and the encouragement of morality and piety; and amongst these were societies for the reformation of manners, which in a few years became greatly extended. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts was also established at this time. Great activity was shown, too, in commercial matters, and another East India Company was formed; but both were eventually united.

William prorogued this Parliament in July without betraying any symptoms of either grief or ill-humour; but he was highly offended by its refusal of his demand for a land force, and unexpectedly dissolved it by proclamation. A new Parliament was summoned to meet on the 24th of August; but this did not prove more complying upon this subject: it adopted a resolution that all the land forces in English pay exceeding 7000 men, and that all the forces

in Ireland except 12,000 men, should be forthwith disbanded. This went to deprive William even of the services of his Dutch guard, which had followed him through good and bad fortune, and which was dearer to him than almost any other object; and he was so justly displeased with the want of confidence and gratitude in the English, that he even contemplated giving up his crown and retiring to the United States of Holland. He had even written out with his own hand a speech to be made on the occasion, but the design was abandoned. By some it was considered only as a threat; but Chancellor Somers, who knew more of what was passing in the king's mind than any one, asserted that he was at one time in good earnest. There is evidence that the great body of the people would have regretted the loss of William as a monarch; but many of the statesmen of the day boasted of the facility of making a new king at their will and pleasure. The Earl of Sunderland, who had recently retired from the office of lord chamberlain, and who was believed to have had almost the influence of a prime minister over the king, upon being told that William had threatened to throw up the crown, exclaimed, "Does he so? Well, there is Tom Pembroke, who is as good a block of wood as a king can be cut out of; we will send for him and make him our king." William, however, still retained his crown. It was during this year that the palace of Whitehall, which for a long course of years had been the residence of our kings, was burnt to the ground, with the exception of the Banqueting House.

In August, when the death of the Spanish monarch was expected, a treaty, the object of which was to prevent the union of France and Spain under one sovereign, for the partition of the Spanish monarchy, was concluded between England, France, and Holland. The Prince of Bavaria was declared heir to the Spanish throne; but he died soon after, and then another treaty was concluded, which declared the Archduke Charles presumptive heir. But on the death of the Spanish king, which took place in 1700, Philip of Anjou, whom the deceased monarch had declared to be his successor, ascended the throne of Spain; but in doing so Philip was obliged to sign a renunciation of the throne of France; and this led to the War of Succession.

In 1701 the English Parliament passed an act for the settlement of the succession to the English crown; an act which was rendered necessary by the death of the Duke of Gloucester. This act provided that succeeding kings should be of the Established Protestant Church; that future monarchs should not go out of England without the consent of Parliament; that the judges should not be removable without cause; and that, after the deaths of King William and the Princess Anne, the succession to the crown should be limited to the Princess Sophia of Hanover and her descendants. The Princess

Sophia was a direct descendant from James I. by his daughter Elizabeth, the electress-palatine; and her descendants alone, of all the posterity of James I., were Protestant. The act was therefore a political arrangement of the highest importance to the religious world, as it opposed a solid bulwark to the attacks of Romish sophistry and ambition. Soon after this act was passed James II. died at St. Germains, in the sixty-eighth year of his age; and his son was there proclaimed King of England, and treated as such by the court of Versailles; his title being likewise acknowledged by the King of Spain, the Duke of Savoy, and the Pope. William complained much of this manifest violation of the treaty of Ryswick, and recalled his ambassador from Paris: while on the other hand, the French monarch dispersed a manifesto through all the courts of Europe in vindication of his conduct.

Early in 1702 the king called a new Parliament; and his speech on this occasion was received with universal applause: indeed, it was so much admired by the well-wishers to the Revolution, that they printed it with decorations in the English, Dutch, and French languages. A grand alliance had been formed between England, Holland, and the Emperor of Germany, which was highly applauded by Parliament; and both Houses drew up a warm and affectionate address, in which they expressed their resentment at the conduct of the French king, and assured William that they would assist him to the utmost of their power against all his enemies. Large supplies were granted; 40,000 forces were ordered to be raised to join the allied army, and the whole nation joined in the cry for war with France.

While William, however, was preparing for this war his reign was brought to a sudden close. He had been unwell in the winter, and in February he broke his collar-bone by a fall from his horse; a shock which proved fatal to his enfeebled constitution: and he died in March, 1702, in the fifty-second year of his age and the fourteenth of his reign.

William, though possessing high and noble qualities of character, was not formed by nature for popularity, as his manners were cold and forbidding. But though this did not please the multitude, it fitted him the more for the times and circumstances in which he lived and reigned; and contrasting his character and conduct with those of the Stuarts, his predecessors, his great superiority must at once be acknowledged. While they aimed at becoming absolute he endeavoured to rule in strict accordance with the principles of the English constitution; and he may safely be placed among the small number of English kings who down to this period can really be pronounced England's benefactors.

ANNE.

William was succeeded, as sovereign of England, by Anne, Princess of Denmark, to the general satisfaction of all parties. As soon as she was proclaimed she declared her resolution to continue the preparations for carrying on the war with France; and both Houses of Parliament approving of the measure, war against France was proclaimed on the same day at Vienna, London, and the Hague. France had previously declared war against Holland; and the Earl of Marlborough was sent to Holland to take the command of the English forces, sign treaties of alliance, and plan the campaign.

Anne was thirty-seven years of age when she came to the throne; good-natured, and popular in her manners, but weak-minded, and easily led. For some time Lady Marlborough was her guiding genius; and under her influence the queen formed her ministry. Lord Marlborough did not care with which party he ranked, so that he had authority; he expected to obtain wealth and honour from the war, and he was not disappointed, for the leading events of this reign were the campaigns under that general.

Anne was crowned on the 23rd of April, and a few days afterwards Marlborough left England to take the command of the allied forces. His first campaign was successful: Liége was taken; the Dutch frontier secured from the French; and on his return Marlborough was made a duke, with a pension of 5000*l.* per annum. In an address to the queen by Parliament it was stated that he had retrieved the glory of the English nation; a statement which cast a reflection on the memory of William. In this Parliament the Tories had a decided majority; and they carried matters with a high hand, and even obtained indulgence for those Jacobites or partisans of the Pretender who had not yet taken the oath of abjuration. A bill was brought in called "An Occasional Conformity Bill;" which was designed to destroy the act of toleration, by forbidding all persons in office to attend any places of worship excepting those of the Established Church; but this iniquitous measure was rejected by the Peers, chiefly on the ground of the rigorous fines and impositions proposed.

The war became general in 1703, but no decisive action took place; the coalition against France was fortified and extended, but the allies made no progress. The close of this year was marked by an awful storm. On the 27th of November a hurricane blew down many houses and churches, and damaged others to a great extent; the damage in London alone being estimated at 1,000,000*l.* In Parliament, which met in November, another attempt was made to pass the bill for occasional conformity; but it was again rejected

by the Lords. A law passed, however, which would now be considered very oppressive, empowering justices of the peace to cause any idle persons, not having regular callings, to be taken up and pressed for soldiers. Such arbitrary power was dangerous in any hands, but in those of unjust magistrates, most iniquitous.

Early in 1704 the queen gave up the first-fruits and tenths, being small amounts paid by the clergy to increase the smaller livings: this is called "Queen Anne's Bounty." The sum then only amounted to about 16,000*l.*, but it has since increased: the first-fruits and tenths had never really been paid into the Treasury, but had been given by her predecessors to persons in favour, without regard to worth or character.

In this year Marlborough gained a great victory over the French in Germany. Having obtained a large increase of English forces, he determined to carry on the war upon the Danube, in unison with Prince Eugene, so as to make a vigorous effort against the main French army, which had been joined by the Elector of Bavaria, and was to act directly against Austria. The two armies met at Blenheim; and after a hard-fought contest a complete victory was gained by the allies under Marlborough. The French and Bavarians lost 30,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners: the allies about 12,000, and Tallard, the French general, was taken prisoner. By this battle of Blenheim, it was said, the French king discovered "that he was no longer invincible." About the same time that it was fought Admiral Rooke captured Gibraltar, a conquest of great importance, but not duly appreciated at the time.

The proceedings in Parliament this year were accompanied by much manifestation of party feeling. The Occasional Conformity Bill was again brought forward, but again rejected by the Lords. But, though the Lords acted thus wisely on this subject, they needed restraint from the Commons in the proceedings they urged against Scotland. There was much disaffection towards Queen Anne's government in that country; and the Lords urged the instant union of the two kingdoms, and the necessity of having the succession of the crown of Scotland declared settled on the Princess Sophia and the heirs of her body. Such a union was desirable; but it could not be effected at the time, as it was opposed by the Commons. The session was closed by a dissolution in April, 1705, whereby a Tory House of Commons was superseded; and the Whigs obtained a majority in the next elections.

In the campaign of 1705 the French had the advantage in Flanders. Marlborough had expected to accomplish much, but was prevented by the disunion of the allies. In Spain, however, the Earl of Peterborough, by a bold and romantic effort, took Barcelona. The queen, when she met her Parliament, declared her in-

tention to continue the war till the French prince was driven from Spain, remarking, that no peace with France would last longer than their first opportunity of dividing the allies, and attacking some of them with advantage. Her determination seemed to lead to victory, for on the 23rd of May, 1706, the allies gained a great battle at Ramillies, and the result to France was the loss of the whole of the Spanish Netherlands. The losses of this campaign induced Louis to propose terms of pacification; but, as he was unwilling that Spain should be divided, and as the allies were ambitious of conquest, his proposal was rejected.

A most important event distinguished the year 1706; this was the Union between England and Scotland, by which the natural-born subjects of each kingdom were put upon a common footing, so that they had no longer different and opposing interests. It was stipulated that the United Kingdom of Great Britain should be represented by one and the same Parliament; that Scotland should be represented by sixteen peers and forty-five commoners; and that all peers of Scotland should be peers of Great Britain, and rank next after the English peers of the like orders and degrees. Great opposition was made to this act by the Tory interest; on the other hand, the Whigs zealously supported it, and it made its way through both Houses with celerity. When it received the royal assent the queen expressed the utmost satisfaction; and though in Scotland the national feelings were strongly against the Union, there was no outbreak there, as had been anticipated. The Duke of Hamilton, though the principal opponent of the Union, saw the folly of opposition, and wisely endeavoured to quiet the most violent of his partisans.

In 1707 the Duke of Marlborough was busily occupied both in arms and negotiation; but nothing decisive resulted from either. In Spain a battle was fought at Almanza, which was decisive in favour of the French party, and from that time the ultimate triumph of Philip was secured; the Austrians, however, succeeded in conquering Naples, thus separating that kingdom from Spain. An attempt of the English on Toulon failed; but an army which entered the south of France, under Prince Eugene, caused Louis to weaken his forces in Flanders. In Scotland the partisans of the Pretender were active, expecting efficient aid from Louis; but the French monarch was too aged, and the Pretender too young for vigorous measures, and the opportunity was suffered to pass. In 1708 the expected invasion from France caused Parliament to suspend the Habeas Corpus Act, and to order the arrest of some of the Pretender's partisans. The Scottish privy council also, which had caused many evils, was abolished.

Great changes took place this year in the court of Queen Anne.

The Duchess of Marlborough, having wearied the queen by her insolence and overbearing conduct, was now supplanted in her Majesty's affections by Mrs. Masham, a poor cousin of the duchess, for whom she had obtained a situation in the royal bed-chamber. Harley and Bolingbroke, two of the ministers, secured the new favourite to their interests; and they all combined to undermine the power of Marlborough and Godolphin. The whole Whig party was in danger from their intrigues: but these intrigues ended in the dismissal of Harley and Bolingbroke from office, though the discarded ministers only retired for a time, and still maintained their hold upon the queen through Mrs. Masham.

In March the Pretender, with a French force, sailed from Dunkirk, to raise the standard of rebellion in Scotland; but on reaching the Frith of Forth the French admiral, finding himself closely followed by a strong naval force under Byng, refused to land him, and returned to France. In the Netherlands this year's campaign was attended with various results. The French were at first successful; but they were completely defeated in July at Oudenarde; and the campaign closed in October with the capture of Lisle by the allies. In Spain little was done; but the English fleet was successful in the Mediterranean, and captured Minorca, as well as the island of Sardinia. Admiral Leake threatened to bombard Civita Vecchia, the port of Rome; but the Pope saved that town by the acknowledgment of the Archduke Charles as King of Spain.

In the autumn of this year the Prince of Denmark, Queen Anne's husband, died: he was of a rather insignificant character, and never took any part in the affairs of the nation. During this time the intrigues at court still went on; and the queen was influenced against her ministry, and came to an open quarrel with the Duke of Marlborough. The interests and destinies of Europe indeed appeared to have been greatly influenced and mostly determined by the petty disputes of three females — Queen Anne, the Duchess of Marlborough, and Mrs. Masham; and the decisions concerning the most important measures often turned on the veriest trifles of their personal broils. The queen, under the influence of Mrs. Masham, even while appearing to the world to seek solitude on account of the loss of her husband, attended to and encouraged secret measures for a change of ministry. But in the new Parliament, which met in November, the Whigs were dominant, and a change of ministers was found to be difficult. The chief measure of this Parliament was to vote means for carrying on the war; and money was for the first time raised by lottery; an evil proceeding which was continued for a century, though manifestly injurious to the nation, by its promotion of a spirit of gambling.

In 1709 the French were again defeated at Malplaquet; but in Spain the war was increasingly disastrous to the allies, and during this year another political storm broke forth. One Dr. Sacheverell, an ignorant, worthless preacher, attracted public attention by sermons in which he railed at the rulers of the state, abusing some of the bishops for their approval of toleration and unwillingness to persecute the dissenters. He raised a cry that the church was in danger, misapplying passages of Scripture which speak of the church of Christ, in order to support his erroneous views. Inadvertently the council committed the error of resolving to prosecute this preacher; and in December his sermons were voted malicious, scandalous, and seditious libels, and he was taken into the custody of the House of Commons. His impeachment was brought before the Lords in February, 1710, but in the meantime it became evident that Sacheverell had the countenance of many of the leading clergy and of the queen. Mobs were stimulated to riotous proceedings, the cry of "The church is in danger!" was repeated by the lowest profligates, and the whole affair was made use of against Marlborough, who desired to deprive Anne of her present favourite Mrs. Masham. Sacheverell was found guilty by the Lords; but, as they only ventured to inflict upon him a very slight censure, his sentence was virtually a triumph; his health was drunk at party orgies, his portrait sold in all forms. After his trial the queen's affection was entirely alienated from the Duchess of Marlborough; and her husband soon after returned to England, only to be insulted and disgraced; for the command of the army was taken from him and given to the Duke of Ormond. The Whig administration was also broken up; and the Earls of Rochester, Bolingbroke, Harcourt, and Harley, afterwards Earl of Oxford, formed the new ministry. Thus the honour of the nation was sacrificed to court intrigues managed by Mrs. Masham, who was soon after addressed as "my Lady Masham," the queen having thus dignified her new favourite.

The campaign of 1710 was comparatively inactive in Flanders, while in Spain, after again occupying Madrid, Charles was compelled to retire. Parliament, the members of which had been newly elected, met in November; though to do little more than to order the erection of fifty new churches in the metropolis and pass an act to strengthen the landed interest, by requiring that all members for counties should possess land which would produce them 600*l.* per annum, and those who sat for boroughs half that sum.

The new ministry seemed disposed for peace; and this emboldened the French court to require more favourable terms than they had hitherto offered. One circumstance in favour of peace was the

death of the Emperor Joseph, by which the Archduke Charles succeeded to the throne of Spain. After some negotiation it was settled that a congress should meet on the 1st of January, 1712, at Utrecht; and by the treaty concluded there Spain yielded all right to Gibraltar and the island of Minorca, while France resigned her pretensions to Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia, St. Christopher's, and Newfoundland. It was also agreed that the fortifications of Dunkirk should be demolished, and its port destroyed; and the ratification of the treaty being exchanged, peace was proclaimed in London, with the usual ceremonies, in 1713. It was a peace greatly to be desired, for the war had been characterised by great ferocity: great victories had been won, which had obtained the plaudits of the nation; but the horrors that had attended the strife had not been taken into the account.

"O, war! what art thou?
After the brightest conquest what remains
Of all thy glories? For the vanquish'd, chains;
For the proud victor—what? alas! to reign
O'er desolated nations—a drear waste,
By one man's crime, by one man's lust of power
Unpeopled! Naked plains and ravaged fields
Succeed to smiling harvests, and the fruits
Of peaceful olive, luscious fig, and vine.

* * * * *

When the song'
Of dear-bought joy, with many a triumph swelled,
Salutes the victor's ears, and soothes his pride,
How is the grateful harmony profaned
With the sad dissonance of virgin's cries,
Who moan their brothers slain! of matrons hoar,
Who clasp their withered hands, and fondly ask,
With iteration shrill, their slaughtered sons!
How is the laurel's verdure stain'd with blood
And soil'd with widows' tears!" MORE.

The conclusion of war, however, was followed by a renewal of party strife and intrigues; no longer restrained by the tie of common danger, ministers gave a loose to their mutual animosity. Bolingbroke charged the Earl of Oxford with having maintained a private correspondence with the House of Hanover: Oxford wrote a letter to the queen, in which he endeavoured to justify his own conduct, and expose the turbulent and ambitious spirit of his rival. In all probability, Oxford's greatest crime was his having given umbrage to "my Lady Masham," though it is clear that he was favourable to the Hanoverian succession. He was dismissed; and Bolingbroke triumphed in the victory he had obtained, but his ambition was defeated, as the office of lord treasurer was filled by the Duke of Shrewsbury. The violent altercation at court upon this occasion is supposed to have had a fatal effect upon the queen whose constitution was already impaired by the gout; and she was

immediately seized with a lethargic disorder, of which she soon after expired, in the fiftieth year of her age and the thirteenth of her reign, A. D. 1714.

Little need be said of the personal character of Queen Anne. Her mind was weak and indolent, and she was easily governed by favourites: her imbecility caused her submission to the Duchess of Marlborough, which, by advancing the duke to command, proved instrumental to the military glories of her reign; while the same infatuated regard bestowed on another female favourite was fortunately overruled to stop the devastations of war and to bring about a peace. Till towards the close of her reign she was a favourite with neither party in Parliament; but then the Tories affected to idolise her; and after her death she was dignified with the name of "The good Queen Anne."

GEORGE I.

A regency bill, passed in 1705, had provided for the government in case of the demise of the queen; and no sooner had she breathed her last than the seven great officers, with eighteen peers named in an instrument signed by the Elector of Hanover, took upon themselves the temporary administration of the state, and issued orders for proclaiming King George in England, Scotland, and Ireland. The Earl of Dorset was then appointed to carry to Hanover the intimation of his Majesty's accession, and to attend him on his journey to England; while arrangements were made to defeat the designs of the Pretender and secure the Protestant succession. The friends of the Pretender were active, but their efforts were of no avail, for George was proclaimed king without opposition. At a private meeting of the partisans of James, Bishop Atterbury advised that they should immediately proclaim him; but they shrank from the attempt, and "Long live King George!" was the general cry throughout the nation. Both Houses of Parliament took oaths to the new sovereign, and loyal addresses were voted unanimously. In the same breath and with the same drop of ink they expressed their grief at the death of their queen, "of blessed memory," and their lively pleasure at the accession of a king whose right to the crown was so undoubted, and whose virtues were so princely. Even those members who were in favour of the Pretender, fearing a committal to the Tower, joined in the universal congratulations.

This prince, who was the son of Ernest Augustus, first Duke and afterwards Elector of Hanover, and of the Princess Sophia, granddaughter of James I., was in the fifty-fifth year of his age when he ascended the throne of Great Britain. Accompanied by the electoral prince, he landed at Greenwich on the 18th of Septem-

ber, where he was received by the Duke of Northumberland, captain of the Life-guards, and the lords of the regency. His subjects of Hanover had witnessed his departure with tears; and his English subjects received him with joy and acclamation. On his arrival he showed marked attention to the leading Whigs; but he looked coldly on the Tories, who had equally run to welcome him to England. He would not admit some of the leaders of the party into his presence, while others were barely permitted to kiss his hand. This was ominous; and it was followed by an instantaneous and total change in every office of honour and advantage. The Tories were excluded from all power: which was wholly engrossed by the Whigs. These early marks of aversion to the former party alienated the minds of many from his person and government who otherwise might have served him with zeal and affection; and the number of malcontents in England was considerably increased by the king's undisguised attachment to the Whig faction. The clamour that the church was in danger was now revived, jealousies were excited, seditious libels published, and dangerous tumults raised throughout the kingdom.

In April, 1715, General Stanhope delivered to the House of Commons all the papers relating to the late negotiations of peace and commerce, as well as to the cessation of arms, and moved that they might be referred to a committee. These and other papers relating to a treasonable correspondence with France had been seized in the possession of Bolingbroke, Strafford, and the poet Prior; and, as the committee appointed was a thoroughly Whig committee, the result was such as might have been expected. Mr. Walpole was appointed chairman, and after the lapse of two months he declared that the report of the committee was ready, and moved that a warrant might be issued by the speaker to apprehend several persons, especially Mr. Thomas Harley and Prior, who, being in their places, were immediately taken into custody. Walpole then impeached Lords Bolingbroke and Oxford; and when the latter appeared in the House next day he found himself avoided as though he had been a viper, and retired with some confusion: while the Duke of Ormond was threatened with impeachment, and consulted his safety by withdrawing from the kingdom. His correspondence with the Pretender was less susceptible of proof than that of Oxford; but, as he could not expect an impartial trial, he fled. The result of the Earl of Oxford's trial was, that he was sent to the Tower. But he was accompanied thither by a large concourse of people, who exclaimed, at the top of their voices, "High church, Ormond, and Oxford for ever!" Lord Bolingbroke, whose treasonable conduct was more evident than either that of Oxford or Ormond, fled to France; and as neither he nor Ormond

surrendered themselves within the time limited, their names and armorial bearings were erased from the list of peers; inventories were taken of their personal estates; and the duke's achievement as Knight of the Garter was taken down from St. George's Chapel at Windsor. Prior was kept in close custody, and no person was admitted to see him without an order from the speaker.

The easy accession of the House of Hanover, after all the plots and plans that had been laid, and all the pledges that had been given to the Pretender, struck the world with astonishment. Efforts, however, were not wanting to shake the new throne, and the High Church party especially applied their broad shoulders to this work. By sermons and by pamphlets they irritated the populace with suspicions of the king's temper and orthodoxy. They painted his religion in bad colours, representing him as puritanical; and drew an odious distinction between a native and a foreign prince: and they prophesied, moreover, that England would be eaten up by Hanoverian rats and other foreign vermin. Their exertions were not without their fruits. In some places the disciples of orthodoxy not only cried, "Down with the dissenters!" but actually did pull down their places of worship. As for the German attendants on their Majesties, they could scarcely move out of doors without being insulted. One day a German lady of the court, being insulted as she passed through the city of London, put her head out of the carriage-window, and exclaimed in broken English, "Why do you abuse us, good peoples? We come for all your goods." "Yes," replied a fellow in the mob, "and for our chattels too!" This lady, however, was known to be a person of very bad character.

In the midst of this personal unpopularity of George and his court numerous papers in behalf of the Pretender were written, printed, and circulated. He was known, in fact, to be a bigot and a coward; but he was represented in these papers as candid, tolerant, and benevolent; the very paragon of a prince, in short, besides resembling in his countenance Charles II. There was, nevertheless, no chance of an invasion in his favour being attended with success in England; King George was unpopular, it is true, but not with the entire body of the people; and even those who clamoured against him for the most part preferred him, as a Protestant, with all his faults, to a Papist, even though represented as a prince of the most perfect qualities. There was, however, scope for action in favour of the Pretender in the sister kingdom Scotland; for the dissatisfaction occasioned in that country by the Union had never been wholly appeased; and as the disaffected had no hopes of dissolving that treaty, they determined to support the Pretender. They maintained a correspondence with the malcontents in England, who, finding themselves now totally excluded from any share

in the government and legislature, and exposed to the insults and fury of their opponents, began to wish in earnest for a revolution. Taking advantage of their promised support, and with the assistance of the French king, the Pretender was enabled to prepare a small armament in the port of Havre, while the Duke of Ormond and Lord Bolingbroke engaged in his service and corresponded with the Tories in England: but all these intrigues and machinations were discovered, and communicated to the court of London by the Earl of Stair, who then resided as English ambassador at Paris. This nobleman detected the scheme while it was yet in embryo, and gave such early notice of it as to enable the king to take effectual measures for defeating the design. But the most fatal blow to the Pretender's interest was the death of Louis XIV.: the ostentatious tyrant who for more than half a century had sacrificed the repose of Christendom to his insatiate vanity and ambition. Upon the decease of Louis the Duke of Orleans entered into engagements with Great Britain; and, instead of assisting the Pretender, amused his agents with mysterious and equivocal expressions, calculated to frustrate the designs of the expedition.

The partisans of the Pretender, however, had proceeded too far to retreat with safety, and they therefore resolved to try their fortune in the field; and in the month of September the Earl of Mar proceeded to Scotland, assembled 300 of his vassals, proclaimed the Pretender at Castletown, and set up his standard at Brae-Mar. About the same time two vessels arrived at Arbroath, from Havre, with arms, ammunition, and a great number of officers, who assured the Earl of Mar that the Pretender would soon be with them in person. The earl now assumed the title of lieutenant-general of the forces, and in a short time he found himself at the head of 10,000 men well armed. Among the earl's adherents were the Marquises of Huntley and Tullibardine, the Earls of Marischal and Southesk, and several other Jacobite noblemen. In the meantime the Earl of Derwentwater took the field in England with a body of horse, and being joined by some gentlemen from the borders of Scotland, proclaimed the Pretender at Warkworth, Morpeth, and Alnwick. He then attempted to seize Newcastle; but being defeated, he retired towards Scotland. There he was again reinforced by some of the Scottish insurgents; but returning into England, he was overpowered at Preston in Lancashire by the king's forces under Generals Wills and Carpenter, and his troops were compelled to lay down their arms. On the same day the Duke of Argyle defeated the rebel army under the Earl of Mar at Sheriff-Muir, and the earl retreated with the remnant of his forces to Perth.

The Pretender had been amused with the hope that the people

of England would rise as one man in his behalf; but he was convinced of the vanity of his expectations in that quarter by a fruitless voyage made by the Duke of Ormond to the western coast. Nothing, therefore, remained for him but to hazard his person in Scotland; and he arrived at the royal palace of Scone, near Perth, on the 8th of December. Here proclamation after proclamation was issued; and one of them fixed his coronation for the 23rd of January, 1716. He was warmly supported by the Episcopalians, but not by the Presbyterians; and it was noticed that only two of the former prayed for King George, and only two of the latter for the Pretender. By the episcopal clergy the Pretender was compared to Moses, Joseph, and David; and they declared that his princely virtues were such that he was worthy to wear a crown, even if he had not been born to one. But he never obtained that crown. He had been promised the support of 16,000 men in arms, but he found only about 5,000; and those were ill-armed and in no good humour. The very appearance of the Pretender, if it had satisfied the episcopal clergy, had disappointed the soldiers; and one of them, in drawing his portrait, said of him: "He cared not to come abroad amongst us soldiers, or to see us handle our arms, or do our exercise. Some said the circumstances he found us in dejected him: I am sure the figure he made dejected us." This was a bad omen: where mutual confidence is wanting between a leader and his troops there can be no success. The disposition of the troops of the Pretender was soon discovered. Hearing that the king's army, commanded by the Duke of Argyle, had been reinforced by 6,000 Dutch troops, and was marching towards them, the chiefs of the Pretender's forces resolved to abandon the enterprise, and even the Pretender himself took fright and fled. He embarked on board a small ship that lay in the harbour of Montrose; from whence, attended by the Earl of Mar and a few other Scottish noblemen, he arrived in five days at Gravelines. Acts of vengeance from the established government followed. The House of Commons impeached the Earls of Derwentwater, Nithisdale, Carnwath, and Wintoun, together with the Lords Widrington, Kenmuir, and Nairn, for being concerned in this rebellion. They were all found guilty; and most of them suffered, though the king himself was inclined to mercy. Bills of high-treason were found against others: twenty-two were executed at Preston; four or five were hanged, drawn, and quartered at Tyburn. Upon some who were taken in the north of England and in Scotland military law was executed: they were tried in bands by a court-martial, and then shot in a heap. What was still more dreadful, 500 prisoners of inferior condition were left inhumanly to starve of hunger and cold in various castles and gaols in the north. Such

was the issue of this ill-timed rebellion; but the excessive severity of the government had the effect of gaining sympathy for the sufferers, and leading afterwards to another attempt of the kind.

A few weeks after this rebellion was quelled the king gave the royal assent to an act for extending the duration of Parliaments to seven years. The great object of this septennial act was to keep the Tories out of Parliament, and it passed both Houses by large majorities, and "with the applauses of some and the curses of others" it became the law of the land.

In the year 1717 the Earl of Oxford, who had been long in prison on a charge of high-treason, was impeached in Westminster Hall, and acquitted. No prosecutor appeared against him, and the ex-prime-minister stept forth as a free man, to the great mortification of the Duke of Marlborough and his vindictive duchess. An act of grace and free pardon was subsequently passed by Parliament, by which the Earl of Carnwath and Lords Widrington and Nairn were released from the Tower, and many others were liberated from Newgate, the Fleet, the Marshalsea, and other places of custody; in Scotland also the prison-doors were generally thrown open to the captive Jacobites. Matthew Prior, Thomas Harley, and a few others were, however, excepted from the act of grace; and as the clan of Rob Roy had made itself conspicuous in the late rebellion, "all and every person of the name of Macgregor" was likewise excepted. But the sting was not taken out of the act of attainder to those who were pardoned; for their estates remained forfeited to the crown.

In 1718 the Quadruple Alliance was signed at London between the courts of Vienna, Paris, the Hague, and Great Britain. In the same year Sir George Byng defeated the Spanish fleet in the Mediterranean; and the Spaniards having attacked the citadel of Messina in Sicily, Messina was given up by the Quadruple Alliance to the Emperor of Austria. War was soon after declared against Spain both by Great Britain and France; a war that had been resolved on by the British Parliament, which met in November, though Walpole and others loudly declaimed against it. In the same Parliament an act was passed "for strengthening the Protestant interest;" the real object of which was to repeal the intolerant act against Occasional Conformity, and the Schism Act. Clauses were originally introduced into this bill for the repeal of such parts of the Test and Corporation Acts as excluded Protestant dissenters from holding certain offices: but these were struck out by the Lords; for latent bigotry and open political manœuvre prevented toleration from becoming the general rule of government.

In 1719 Spain, being at war with England, sent out a fleet to

act in behalf of the Pretender; and the manifestoes issued by him show that he had the most sanguine hopes of success. He was, however, again disappointed, for the fleet was cast away off Cape Finisterre: but about the same time an English squadron, assisted by some French soldiers, attacked the Spanish shipping at Santona, and destroyed property to the amount of 1,000,000 of dollars. The French also captured the town and citadel of St. Sebastian. Other parts of Spain were further attacked by the English and French; and in 1720 the King of Spain sued for peace and consented to join the Quadruple Alliance. This accession gave a twelve years' peace to Europe.

In the British Parliament, which met in November, a bill was passed for limiting the creation of new peers. At this time the king was at variance with his son the Prince of Wales; and it was thought that he sanctioned this measure in order to take vengeance on him, by weakening his party the Tories. Lord Cowper, in opposing it, adverted to this in a forcible manner. "Precipitation," he said, "was always dangerous, and in many cases suspicious; and he could not help being of opinion that, if there were no secret meaning in this bill, it would not be pressed upon the House in so extraordinary a manner." Walpole in the Commons alluded to the enmity which existed between the king and the heir to the throne in a manner still more marked; and he spoke with equal plainness of the personal character of George and of the seeming surrender of one of the most important of his prerogatives. He remarked: "We are told that his Majesty has voluntarily consented to this limitation of the prerogative. It may be true; but may not the king have been deceived? which, if it is ever to be supposed, must be admitted in this case. The character of the king furnishes us also with a strong proof that he has been deceived; for, although it is a fact that in Hanover, where he possesses absolute power, he has never tyrannised over his subjects, or despotically exercised his authority, yet can one instance be produced of his ever giving up a prerogative?" Walpole declared that this bill would make the lords masters of the king, and shut up the door of honour to the rest of the nation.

It was during this session of Parliament that the memorable South-Sea Company received the royal assent. The scheme was projected by Sir John Blunt, who had been a scrivener, and who was possessed of all the cunning, plausibility, and boldness requisite for such an undertaking. The company was originally formed for the purpose of trading to the South Seas; but that speculation being unprofitable, Blunt contrived to persuade some of the proprietors that it would be profitable to purchase up all the various stocks of the National Debt, and consolidate them into one fund.

This scheme met with the approbation of the ministers. Aislabie, chancellor of the Exchequer, said that, if the proposal was accepted, the prosperity of the nation would be marvellously increased, and all her debts paid. Some members expressed their doubts; but it was generally believed that a golden age would follow the adoption of this project, and its projectors managed their affairs so cunningly, that many thousands of persons advanced large sums of money, expecting to receive the most extravagant interest for them. South-Sea stock was sold and re-sold at enormous prices; subscription succeeded subscription, each mounting over the other, till the stock rose to above 1000 per cent. Nor was this the only project which gained the public favour. Bubble companies sprung up and grew round the mighty original like mushrooms round a rotten tree. There were joint-stocks for making saltwater fresh; for making oil out of sunflower seeds; for extracting silver out of lead; for transmuting quicksilver into a malleable and fine metal; for trading in human hair; for fatting of hogs; and for a wheel of perpetual motion! "The South-Sea stock had the honour," it was said, "of being the gold table; the better sort of the other bubbles were silver tables; and the lower sort were farthing tables for footmen." Every day brought forth a new project, till all trade was suspended but that of gambling in shares; and 'Change-alley was crammed from morning till night by every class of society, from the prince to the peasant, all frantically eager to become shareholders in some of the bubble companies. But soon these bubbles burst. The South-Sea Company, jealous of the others, and desirous, it would seem, of monopolising all the folly as well as all the money of the nation, obtained writs against the managers of the lesser bubbles; and fear of prosecutions put an end to most of them. But in thus exposing the cards of others the South-Sea Company drew attention to their own game. They wanted only to disclose a part of the truth; but they unintentionally let out the whole, and people began to suspect, and then to be certain, that they had been playing their solid gold against bits of useless paper. The South-Sea stock, which had been going at 1000 per cent. in August, fell in September to less than 300, and no exertions could ever get it up again. Bankers, brokers, merchants, and goldsmiths now began to fail and to quit the country, each in his own ruin causing that of hundreds or thousands of others. Public credit sustained a terrible shock, and the nation was thrown into a dangerous ferment. Bitter were the fruits of the universal imprudence; an infinite number of families, before wealthy, were steeped in poverty. Nothing was heard but the ravings of grief, disappointment, and despair. At length the House of Commons took the matter into consideration, and a committee of secresy was chosen by ballot to examine

the books, papers, and proceedings of the Company; and in a short time a report was made that they had discovered a train of the deepest villany that had ever been contrived to ruin a nation. In consequence of this some of the directors and principal officers of the company were taken into custody: others were expelled the House of Commons. The estates of the greatest delinquents were confiscated towards making good the damages sustained by the public, and such prudent regulations were made as the case would admit of. The whole transaction was a powerful comment on the words of the Apostle Paul, that they who would be rich fall into temptation and a snare.

The proceedings against the proprietors of the South-Sea Company chiefly occupied the attention of the House of Commons in the session of 1720 and 1721; and after vengeance had been taken on them no very remarkable event occurred till 1722, when the great Duke of Marlborough died. His funeral was almost regal; all his vices and political baseness were forgotten, and nothing was borne in mind but his high achievements as the first of English captains. While Marlborough was lying on his deathbed the nation was agitated by fresh rumours of plots and conspiracies, and the Duke of Orleans sent the king certain intelligence of another conspiracy against his person and government in favour of the Pretender. A camp was immediately formed in Hyde Park, and several suspected persons were apprehended; amongst whom were Dr. Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester, the Duke of Norfolk, the Earl of Orrery, the Lords North and Grey, and others of inferior rank. A young gentleman of the Temple named Layer was also tried in 1723, at the King's Bench, for enlisting men into the Pretender's service; and being found guilty, he was hanged at Tyburn. He was the only person who suffered death on this occasion: the Bishop of Rochester was deprived of his office and benefice, and banished the kingdom: the rest were admitted to bail. At the same time the king granted a pardon to Lord Bolingbroke, and soon after an act passed restoring that nobleman to his family estate.

The session of Parliament in 1724 was distinguished by the trial of the Earl of Macclesfield, Lord Chancellor of England. This nobleman had connived at certain scandalous misdoings touching the sale of places and the money of suitors deposited with the masters of Chancery; and as he was convicted of these practices, after a trial of twenty days, he was condemned to pay a fine of 30,000*l.* and suffer imprisonment till that sum was paid. He was committed to the Tower; but at the lapse of six weeks he paid the money and was discharged; Sir Peter King, one of the justices of the Common Pleas, now created Baron King, succeeding him in the chancellorship.

In the year 1726 the king, receiving information of some inimical designs of the Spaniards, sent a squadron, under the command of Admiral Hosier, to the Spanish West Indies, but this expedition proved unfortunate. Admiral Hosier, upon his arrival in those seas, finding himself restricted by his orders from obeying the dictates of his courage, and seeing his best officers and men daily swept away by the unhealthy climate, and his ships exposed to inevitable destruction from worms, died it was said, of a broken heart.

In consequence of these hostilities in the West Indies the Emperor and the King of Spain prepared to retaliate on the English. The King of Spain laid siege to Gibraltar with an army of 20,000 men; but the powers at variance were really all equally averse to war, and a treaty was opened at Aix-la-Chapelle for adjusting all differences and consolidating the peace of Europe. The siege of Gibraltar was then raised, after it had lasted four months, and the Spaniards had lost a great number of men by sickness. The merit of this pacification is generally attributed to Sir Robert Walpole and Cardinal Fleury; both of whom were men of peace.

On the 3rd of June, 1727, the king, having appointed a regency, embarked at Greenwich for Hanover; and he arrived in Holland on the 7th. He was then in apparently good health; but on the 10th, as he was travelling along the road, he was seized with apoplexy; and on reaching Ippenburren was found to be quite lethargic. He was so far restored as to be able to express a wish to be taken to Osnaburg, and his attendants accordingly set off with him; but before he could reach it he expired, in the sixty-eighth of his age and the thirteenth of his reign. In spite of many vices and infirmities, George I. was a man of vigorous character; though a despotic ruler in his native country, he had accommodated himself admirably to the restrictions of constitutional monarchy, and had on many occasions displayed considerable ability as a sovereign and a politician. In private life he seems to have possessed some attractive qualities; and Horace Walpole, who was not a flatterer of kings, calls him a good-natured prince, and records several instances of his amiability, humour, and wit. He was attached to his German dominions; and this attachment was made use of by the Tories to render him odious to the British nation: but it is certain that he wished and sought to govern England according to the maxims of the British constitution and the genius of the people. If ever he deviated from these principles, it appears to have been at the suggestion of a venal ministry, whose whole power and influence were founded on corruption.

GEORGE II.

George II. was proclaimed King of Great Britain on the 15th of June, the day after the express had arrived with the account of the death of his father. The intelligence was communicated to him by Sir Robert Walpole, who, as he knelt at his feet, kissed his hand as his king, and inquired whom his majesty would be pleased to appoint to draw up the usual speech or declaration to the council. "Sir Spencer Compton," replied the monarch abruptly: an answer which implied Sir Robert's dismissal from office. But Compton was conscious of his incapacity for the duties of a prime minister, and he himself begged Walpole to assist him in making the draft of the king's speech. Sir Robert accordingly made it, and kept possession of the Treasury. All the great officers of state, indeed, were continued in their places, and the system of politics pursued by the late king underwent no alteration.

In his speech to both Houses the king, at the opening of the session, professed a fixed resolution to merit the love and affection of his people, by maintaining them in the full enjoyment of their religious and civil rights. In return, Parliament settled 800,000*l.* per annum on him for life, and granted 100,000*l.* as a future provision for the queen, in case she should survive his Majesty, together with the palace of Somerset House, and Richmond Old Park.

The king from the throne thanked the Commons for these marks of affection, and after adverting to the flourishing state of the country, prorogued the Parliament. Shortly after this the necessary dissolution was proclaimed, and writs were issued for a new Parliament, to meet in January, 1728.

The Jacobites had been sanguine in their hopes that the death of the first George would lead to a revolution, and finally to a restoration of the Stuarts; but at this critical moment they saw all their hopes vanish into thin air. At the news of the death of George I. the Pretender had hastened from Bologna, where he had been residing, to Lorraine, whence he dispatched a messenger to Bishop Atterbury, who was at Paris; but the bishop had small encouragement to offer him, nor were the advices received from other Jacobites more encouraging, Lord Orrery, in London, confessed that the number of discontented among the people was very small; and the Earl of Strafford was obliged to confess that the torrent was too strong to resist. George II., indeed, ascended the throne with the entire approbation of the people: and few British sovereigns have commenced their reigns under more auspicious circumstances. His coronation, with that of the queen, was so-

lemnised at Westminster Abbey on the 11th of October. At this time the courts of France and Spain were perfectly reconciled. All Europe was freed from the calamities of war; and the peace of Great Britain suffered for a considerable time no interruption, except from some transient tumults among the miners of Cornwall, who, being provoked by a scarcity of corn, rose in arms and plundered the granaries of that county.

In person and manners George II. was inferior to his predecessor: he was less dignified, more fiery and passionate, was generally supposed to have less talent for business; and was addicted to avaricious meanness — of all qualities perhaps the one most likely to render a prince unpopular. He was, however, a man of undisputed courage in the field; and he had the advantage over his father of being able to speak English fluently: he was also more acquainted with the people, and was sociable, communicative, and accessible on all occasions. In his habits and occupations he was as regular as clock-work: he was, in fact, so much a slave to routine, that he seemed to think his having done a thing to-day a sufficient reason for his doing it to-morrow. He was a kind and even a submissive husband; and it was his good fortune that he allowed his wife to rule both him and the state. This wife was Carolina Wilhelmina, daughter of the Margrave of Anspach, and a superior and accomplished woman. Caroline was an ardent lover of literature and philosophy; she even affected to combine the characters of a philosopher and a princess, a beauty and a wit, a metaphysician and a divine; and her levees presented a strange picture of the motley character and manners produced by her attempts to unite these rather incongruous perfections. She received company while at her toilet, and had prayers and sometimes sermons read: learned men and divines were intermixed with courtiers and ladies of the household, and the conversation often turned on metaphysical subjects, blended with repartees, sallies of mirth, and the tittle-tattle of a drawing-room. But, mixed with some affectation and absurdity, Caroline had a good fund of homely sense, discretion, and dignity; and, what was better than all, her character was without a blemish, and it was her native excellence that obtained for her such influence over her husband. During ten years she was more king than he was; and he seldom went wrong, except when led to act against her advice or suggestion. Tickell says, not without truth, that she was—

> "Formed to gain hearts that Brunswick's cause denied,
> And charm a people to her husband's side."

The new Parliament met on the 23rd of January, 1728; and it was found to be loyal and compliant. In his speech the king

assured the Houses that it was necessary to continue those warlike preparations which had hitherto secured the safety of the nation, as the execution of the preliminaries signed at Paris had been retarded by the obstinate opposition of Spain; and Parliament responded to this assurance by grants of money for the support of an army equal to the contingency. In the session of 1729 petitions were presented to the Commons from the merchants of London, Liverpool, and Bristol, complaining of the interruptions they had suffered in their trade by the depredations of the Spaniards in the West Indies. Other merchants also complained; and the House in a committee examined several witnesses, and passed several resolutions, in which the Spaniards were accused of violating the treaties subsisting between the two crowns; and with having treated with inhumanity the masters and crews of ships belonging to Great Britain. An address was presented to the king, desiring that he would use endeavours to procure satisfaction; and the king promised to comply with this request. An embassy was sent to the Spanish court at Seville, and a treaty was at length concluded, by which Spain joined in a defensive alliance with England, France, and Holland, confirmed preceding treaties, revoked certain privileges granted to the emperor by the treaty of Vienna, put the English trade in America on its former footing, and restored all captures. By this treaty the peace of Europe was established. The terms of this treaty were discussed in the session of 1730, and the opposition members raised many objections to it; but they were too weak to set it aside. In this session the East India Company s charter was prolonged to 1766, on the condition of the company's paying 200,000*l.* towards the supply of the current year, and reducing by one per cent. the interest of the money they had already advanced to the public. This measure was also objected to by the opposition, and, finding that all their attempts to stop the proceedings of government were useless, they exerted their strength in the press, and deluged the city of London with inflammatory papers and pamphlets, in which there was little regard either to truth or decency. In proroguing Parliament the king, in alluding to these publications, termed them "scandalous libels."

In this year seven chiefs of the Cherokee nation of Indians of America were brought to England. Being introduced to the king, they laid their rude insignia of royalty at his feet, and, by authentic deed, acknowledged themselves subjects to Great Britain. They were of course astonished at the riches and magnificence of the British court.

The history of England for the next four years chiefly consists of an annual record of debates in Parliament, in which the same arguments perpetually recur on the same subjects. Among these

Sir Robert Walpole's Excise Bill merits attention, as it met with great opposition, both within and without doors. After long and violent debates it was carried in the Commons; but the opposition which the minister encountered without doors prevented the project from being carried into execution: the whole nation was alarmed, and clamoured loudly against it; the populace crowded round Westminster Hall, and blocked up all the avenues to the House of Commons; they even insulted those members who had supported it; and Sir Robert Walpole, beginning to fear for his life, thought proper to drop the design by moving that the second reading should be postponed. The miscarriage of the bill was celebrated by public rejoicings, and its projector was burnt in effigy by the populace; but Sir Robert was hardly deserving of such treatment, as it is recorded, to his honour, that when he found the act could not be carried into execution without an armed force, he declared that he would sooner resign office than enforce taxes at the expense of blood.

In this period a proposal was made in the Commons for the repeal of the Septennial Bill; and many judicious arguments were urged both for and against this motion. Ministers alleged that the increase of Papists and Jacobites rendered it dangerous to weaken the hands of government: they challenged the opposition to produce one instance in which the least encroachment had been made on the liberties of the people, and defied the most ingenious malice to prove that his present Majesty had ever sought to extend any branch of the prerogative beyond its proper limits. The opposition urged many warm, nervous, and pathetic remonstrances in favour of the motion, but in vain,—it was negatived; and after it had been disposed of, the Parliament, having sat nearly its term, was dissolved; and the result of the fresh elections was found to be still favourable to ministers. The minority was indeed larger than formerly; but the majority was still an overwhelming one.

The vice of drunkenness had always been one of the worst defects of the English character, and professedly with a view of improving the manners of the people in this respect, Parliament in 1736 imposed a tax upon gin and other spirituous liquors, supposing that to be the best way of putting a stop to the destructive vice in question. The tax imposed was twenty shillings per gallon, which made spirituous liquors too dear for the poor, who were the chief or sole consumers of them; but this gin-tax did little good either to the public morality or the public revenue. Clandestine dealers increased their trade; and "persons of inferior grade" got drunk as frequently as before, and raised also sundry riots "because the government had endeavoured to put gin out of their reach." Hogarth's engravings, which were published at this

period, were more likely to check the vice of drinking than this or any act that ministers could pass for that purpose.

In the course of this year the marriage of Frederick, Prince of Wales, with the Princess of Saxe-Gotha was celebrated; and upon this occasion, when an address of congratulation was moved to his Majesty, Mr. George Littleton and Mr. William Pitt embraced the opportunity of pronouncing eloquent panegyrics on the Prince of Wales and his consort. These two young members soon distinguished themselves in the House of Commons by their superior talents.

The beginning of the year 1737 was marked by a rupture in the royal family, which was made publicly notorious by the Prince of Wales carrying away the princess from Hampton Court, where their Majesties resided, to St. James's, where she was delivered of a daughter who was named Augusta. This rupture was not healed in November, when Queen Caroline died; whose loss was deeply felt both by the king and the nation. George II., though he was not a faithful husband, was devotedly attached to his wife, and soon after her death, one of his German attendants having a picture of Caroline which was said to be a better likeness than any one in the king's possession, he desired that it might be brought to him. When it was produced the king was deeply affected, and he desired to be left alone with it till he rang the bell. The bell was not rung till two hours had elapsed; and when the owner of the picture entered, George exclaimed, "Take the picture away: I never yet saw the woman worthy to buckle her shoe." Caroline indeed had been his better genius. It is said, however, that on her deathbed she refused to see the Prince of Wales, and it is certain that the king still entertained resentment against his son. The lord chamberlain had even orders to signify that no person who visited the prince should be admitted to the court of St. James's. The heir-apparent lived merely like a private gentlemen, though during this retirement the Princess of Wales in 1738 gave birth to a son, who afterwards swayed the sceptre of England under the title of George III.

When the session of 1738 opened the king informed the members that a convention had been concluded and ratified between him and the King of Spain, in which the latter had agreed to make reparation to the British merchants for their losses by certain stipulated payments. This famous convention, which had been concluded at Madrid, caused warm debates in both Houses. In the Commons the two contending parties summoned their whole force for the approaching dispute, and on the day appointed for considering the convention more than 400 members had taken their seats by eight in the morning. All the officers and adherents of

the Prince of Wales joined the opposition, the prince himself sitting in the gallery to hear the debate. On this occasion Mr. Pitt declaimed against the convention as insecure, unsatisfactory, and dishonourable. Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney also poured all the thunder of their eloquence against the insolence of Spain and the concessions of the British ministry. On the other side Sir Robert Walpole exerted all his fortitude and dexterity in defence of himself and his measures; and an address of thanks was carried, though only by a small majority. To such a degree of animosity were both parties inflamed, that the most eminent members of the minority retired from Parliament, and were considered by the nation as martyrs to the liberty of the people. The debate was maintained with equal warmth in the Lords, the chief speakers against the convention being Lord Bathurst, the Earl of Chesterfield, and the Duke of Argyle; while it was defended by the Duke of Newcastle, the Earls of Cholmondeley and Ilay, and Lord Harvey. This dispute was learned, long, and obstinate; but it ended in favour of the address. In this session a bill was carried, facilitating the importation of wool from Ireland, and laying additional duties upon the exportation of that commodity in its crude state. Another act was passed, permitting the introduction of sugar into foreign ports in British ships without first landing it in Great Britain.

Though war with Spain was postponed by the convention of Seville, it was not averted; for in the course of this year negotiations were interrupted by various differences; and Walpole, dearly as he loved peace, was compelled to prepare for war. War was proclaimed in London on the 19th of October in the most jubilant manner. People seemed to fancy that they had already obtained the mines of Mexico and Peru and the Spanish colonies in South America. It is said that several of the leaders of the opposition walked in procession after the heralds, who proclaimed war by sound of trumpet; and that the Prince of Wales stopped before the Rose Tavern at Temple Bar to drink with the mob "Success to the war!" All the bells in London were set ringing; on hearing which, Walpole exclaimed, "They may ring the bells now; but they will soon be ringing their hands."

Parliament met in November, and its chief measures were of course to provide the materials for carrying on the conflict. It was prorogued in April, and while it was yet sitting advices were received that Admiral Vernon had taken Portobello with only six ships of war. In the same year Vernon bombarded Carthagena, and took Fort Chagres. But his successes were soon ended; and in the year 1741 an expedition under his command and that of General Wentworth proved totally unsuccessful. The miscarriage

of this expedition, which had cost the nation an immense sum, filled the kingdom with murmuring and discontent, and the people were depressed in proportion to the sanguine hopes by which they had been elevated. The general dissatisfaction had a manifest influence upon the election of members for a new Parliament, which took place this year. Sir Robert Walpole felt himself on the brink of ruin, and although he had been averse to the war, he knew that a majority of even a single vote would at any time commit him to the Tower if ever that motion should be made. His safety, he felt, could only be effected by dividing the opposition; and this he tried to bring about in various ways; but failing in his design, he declared, during the session of 1742, that he would never more sit in the House of Commons. The king adjourned the Parliament for a few days; and in the interim Sir Robert Walpole was created Earl of Orford, and resigned all his employments. But the newly-created earl soon found means to transfer the popular odium from himself to his opponents; and a coalition took place. Some were gratified with titles and offices, and all were assured that in the management of affairs a new system would be adopted, according to the plan they themselves should propose. About the same time, too, the king and the Prince of Wales were reconciled: an event which was celebrated with rejoicings throughout the kingdom. This reconciliation, however, was purchased; for the Prince of Wales had an additional 50,000*l.* per annum granted to him; and then his enmity to the Earl of Orford was disarmed, and he, with all the leaders of the opposition, went to pay their respects at court.

At the passing of the Gin Act in 1731 Walpole had foretold that it would encourage fraud and increase drunkenness, and his opinion was found to be correct. In 1743 ministers proposed a new bill, granting licences at twenty shillings each to the retailers, and a duty per gallon on spirits at the still-head; but this was more to obtain revenue than to prevent drunkenness, and hence it met with great opposition. It was denounced as a licence to the people to poison themselves; as a bait spread over the pitfalls of debauchery; and as an attempt to raise the revenue at the expense of the morals and habits of the people: nevertheless the bill passed both Houses by large majorities.

War with Spain still continued; but no important successes were obtained on either side. England also at this time became engaged in another war. The Emperor of Germany had recently died, leaving an only daughter, Maria Theresa, who was married to Francis of Lorraine. The claim of this princess to the imperial throne was not only just, but it had the security of an express guarantee by nearly all the great powers of Europe. The Elector

of Bavaria, however, urged and aided by the French Court, disputed it. England sided with Maria Theresa; and in 1742 her cause was sustained by an English army and English subsidies. In the next year George II. appeared personally with an English-Hanoverian army in Germany, forced the elector of the palatinate to neutrality, gained a victory over the French at Dettingen, and destroyed their lines on the Zurich. In 1744 a Spanish and French fleet was defeated by Admiral Mathews near the harbour of Toulon, and France then declared war against England.

France seconded this declaration of war by assisting Charles Edward, son of the old Pretender, to make an attempt upon England; and a pressing invitation was sent to him from Scotland, where the mischievous disorders of 1715 had been too soon forgotten. In 1745, therefore, being furnished with some money, and still larger promises, the young Pretender embarked for Scotland, accompanied by the Marquis of Tullibardine and a few other desperate adventurers. For the conquest of the whole British empire he brought with him only seven officers and arms for 2000 men. He landed on the coast of Lochabar, and was soon joined by some Highland chiefs and their vassals: 1500 men ranged themselves under his standard, and others were invited to join him by manifestoes, which were dispersed throughout all the Highlands. The ministry was no sooner assured of the fact of his arrival than Sir John Cope was ordered to arrest his progress. The young adventurer in the meantime marched to Perth, where his father the Chevalier de St. George was proclaimed King of Great Britain; and the rebel army then advanced towards Edinburgh, which they entered without opposition. The pageantry of proclamation was also performed in that city; but though the young Pretender was master of the capital, the citadel, with a garrison under the command of General Guest, braved all his attempts. Sir John Cope marched towards Edinburgh to give battle; but the adventurers attacked him near Preston-Pans, and totally defeated his troops; the king losing 1500 men, the rebels not above eighty. Thus successful, the Pretender marched forward with vigour, and advanced to Penrith, then to Manchester, and finally to Derby. He then determined, however, once more to return to Scotland; where, after many attacks and skirmishes, the Duke of Cumberland put himself at the head of the troops at Edinburgh, which consisted of about 14,000 men, and resolving to come to a battle as soon as possible, marched northward, while the Pretender retired at his approach. The duke then advanced to Aberdeen, where he was joined by the Duke of Gordon and some other lords. The Highlanders at that time (1746) were drawn up in order of battle on the plain of Culloden, to the number of 8000 men. The duke marched thither; and a

battle was fought, in which the rebels were totally routed, on the 15th of April, the field being covered with their dead bodies, and great numbers being afterwards killed as they were making their escape. The rebellion being thus quelled, the legislature resolved to make examples of those who had joined in it. Many who had borne arms in the rebel army were executed on Kennington-common, at Carlisle, at Penrith, and at York. Among the men of high rank whose lives were forfeited may be noticed the Earls of Kilmarnock and Derwentwater, and Lords Lovat and Balmerino. A few of the rebels obtained pardon, a considerable number were transported to the plantations; and thus ended the last attempt of the House of the Stuarts to regain the dominion of Great Britain.

This war in Scotland was a most advantageous diversion for the French; for while the English were putting it down they had been marching from conquest to conquest, and at the time when the battle of Culloden was fought were threatening Holland with annihilation. The war continued to rage on the Continent; and many were the defeats, the victories, and the negotiations which took place until they were terminated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. The war between England and Spain procured for the former triumph and booty; and the hero Anson in his voyage round the world captured many rich Spanish vessels and plundered several commercial cities. The commerce of Spain indeed was almost ruined by these losses. When England took up arms against France, in the war concerning the Austrian succession, her gain became still greater. In every sea a multitude of French and Spanish vessels fell into the hands of the English, and it was in vain that France sent her fleets to convoy her vessels of commerce. The great defeats which she experienced, especially from Admirals Anson and Hawke, destroyed her naval force so completely, that she had scarcely a ship of war left. Yet the struggle had cost much blood and treasure, so that when peace was made it was celebrated by fireworks, illuminations, and rejoicings. By this treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle the Pretender was to be banished from France. After the peace was concluded Great Britain enjoyed an enviable prosperity, for the effects of Walpole's pacific and frugal administration upon the elevation of natural industry had not been much hindered by the war; and when it was concluded they became more evident than ever.

The public rejoicing for the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was succeeded, in 1749, by complaints that ministers had in the treaty sacrificed the honour and interest of England; but the eloquence of Pitt kept the House of Commons in order, and the feeble voice of opposition was soon almost hushed. During this session several bills were passed for the encouragement of trade and for the establish-

ment of fisheries which might compete with those of the Dutch, as well as for the formation of new roads and for the improvement of the city of London. With the return of peace, the intelligence, capital, and spirit of the nation were turned in these directions, and its good effects were made manifest in several admirable works. The session closed in April, 1750; after which the king, as was his usual custom, went over to Hanover.

The king had scarcely left England when bitter dissensions broke out in the cabinet; and though these were healed on his return, the session of 1751 was characterised by the bitter strife of parties. No question, however unimportant, was brought forward which did not give rise to clamour. Abuse took the place of argument; and especially on any question of privilege which the House was called upon to discuss. While this privilege war was at its hottest, and many months before it was concluded, the Prince of Wales was suddenly removed from factious struggles and from the expectation of a crown, almost within his grasp, by death. In consequence of a cold he was seized with a pleuritic disorder; and after a short illness he expired, on the 20th of March. The little that has been related of Frederick is not calculated to conciliate much esteem for his memory; but his character was certainly not so bad as it was painted by his enemies, nor so good as it was represented by his friends. He appears to have been weak rather than vicious; and rather pettish and passionate, than headstrong and malignant. It is said that the king recovered from the shock in one day; and that, except the princess his wife, the grief of no one for his loss was either sincere or lasting. He left a family of eight children; and Prince George, his eldest son, was created Prince of Wales.

In the course of the present year (1751) the calendar was changed, and the Gregorian adopted, in order to make our computation of time harmonise with that of the rest of civilised Europe.

Little that is worthy of record occurred in England in 1752. The year was chiefly marked by continental embarrassments and by squabbles at Court and in the household of the young Prince of Wales. In 1753 an alteration took place in the law of marriage, before which unions could be formed with more facility all over England than they were at a recent period at Gretna Green. No publication of banns was required; no license looked for: any clergyman might perform the ceremony at any time or in any place, without the consent of parents or any preliminary conditions, and the Fleet Prison was the great temple of the pseudo-Hymen. Pennant says: "In walking along the street in my youth, on the side next to this prison, I have often been tempted by the question, 'Sir, will you be pleased to walk in and be married?' Along this

most lawless space was hung up the sign of a male and female hand conjoined, with 'Marriages performed within' written beneath. A dirty fellow invited you in. The parson was seen walking before his shop; a squalid, profligate figure, clad in a tattered plaid nightgown, with a fiery face, and ready to marry you for a dram of gin or a roll of tobacco." To remedy this abuse, a bill was passed which provided that all marriages should take place either by banns published on three successive Sundays, or by licenses granted by the bishops; and that all other marriages should be void, and the clergyman who solemnised any such transported for seven years.

In this year matters were rapidly tending towards a fresh rupture between the subjects of Great Britain and France in different parts of America. In 1754 the ambition and intrigues by which the British interests in America had been invaded and disturbed extended as far as the East Indies, where attempts were made to embroil the English company with divers of the native princes. These intrigues were made the subject of discussion in Parliament; and in the session of 1755 the committee of supply eagerly voted a million for the defence of our American possessions, and Admiral Boscawen was sent with a fleet towards the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to intercept a French fleet, which had been prepared in the ports of Rochfort and Brest, and which was carrying reinforcements to the French Canadians. Boscawen's orders were to fall upon the French, and if possible to destroy them; but a thick fog prevented the two armaments from seeing each other; and though two of the French ships, which had been separated from the rest, were captured, the main body of the fleet got safe into the River St. Lawrence. As soon as the news of this action arrived at Paris the English ambassador was recalled from France.

War was declared against France by his Britannic Majesty on the 7th of May, 1756, and Admiral Byng was sent with a fleet to the relief of Minorca; but, from his neglecting to fulfil his instructions, the place was lost, and he was brought to trial before a court-martial, and ultimately shot, although even his judges declared that while they could not, according to the 19th article of war, do otherwise than find him guilty, they considered that there were strong grounds for recommending him to mercy. It appears that by some of the party intrigues of the time a violent outcry had been raised against him.

The popular indignation which effected the ruin of Admiral Byng overthrew also the cabinet that had employed him. In order to conciliate the people, and to remove the odium they had brought upon themselves, ministers admitted into a share of the administration Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge, who were both distinguished and

admired for their talents and integrity. But however much the people were conciliated by these promotions, this mixed union was not of long continuance. As the new members of the administration were neither to be persuaded nor intimidated into any measures which they deemed repugnant to the true interest of their country, they were represented to the king as obstinate, imperious, and ignorant: these suggestions produced the desired effect. In April, 1757, by his Majesty's commands, they had to resign office; but the voice of the nation was again found to be all-powerful; numerous addresses were presented soliciting the king to restore them to their places; and his Majesty was obliged to yield. They were reinstated in June, and the public was again appeased. At the same time Mr. Fox was gratified with the office of receiver and paymaster-general of the land forces, and many other alterations were made in the ministerial arrangements.

Pitt was scarcely repossessed of the seals before he made an offer of ceding Gibraltar to Spain in exchange for Minorca, on condition of Spain joining England in war against France. This offer seems almost to savour of insanity; but luckily for Pitt so precious an object as Gibraltar could not tempt the King of Spain to break his neutrality. Pitt's first warlike schemes also were neither well conceived nor attended with success. An expedition was sent to make a descent on the coasts of France; but it returned home without effecting anything of moment; and before this failure the Duke of Cumberland, with an army of Hanoverian and confederated troops, amounting to 50,000 men, had been foiled, beaten, and driven back from the Rhine, the Weser, and Hanover by the French, and he was at length compelled to sign a disgraceful capitulation, which is known in history by the name of the "Convention of Closter Seven." In North America also, whither reinforcements had been sent by Pitt, little or nothing had been achieved; and the French had obtained several advantages, which made the war longer and more difficult than had been expected. In the East Indies, however, by the activity and military genius of Clive, the tide of victory was turned in our favour. Clive had begun his extraordinary career in the East as early as 1748; and by the end of the present year all the towns and factories of the French on the coast of Coromandel were in the possession of the British. It was by these victories of Clive over the French, as well as over the native princes, that the broad foundations of our Indian empire were securely laid. In the same year also some trifling advantages were obtained by the British navy over the French castles and factories on the African coast.

In the session of 1758 some new taxes were laid on houses and windows to meet an increasing expenditure; and in this

year Pitt again chose the coast of France for the scene, as it was said, of his romance: a large fleet was sent out to that coast in June, which was to do something of great moment, but what was not clearly defined. Howe was commander of the fleet, and the Duke of Marlborough general of the forces; the troops anchored in the Bay of Cancelle, near St. Maloes, which was to be the object of their attack; but St. Maloes was so strongly situated, and so well fortified, that it could not be carried by assault; and, after burning some small vessels, both generals and men returned to their shipping. Marlborough in his haste left some teaspoons behind him; and these were, with contemptuous politeness, sent home in a cartel-ship by the Duke d'Aiguillon. Subsequently attempts were made upon Havre de Grace and Cherbourg; but these were equally unsuccessful, and then the fleet returned to Portsmouth. Later in the year General Bligh captured Cherbourg; but he also was defeated in an attempt made upon St. Maloes: he was compelled to retreat, and in so doing lost the flower of his forces. In the same year Captain Marsh took Senegal, and Commodore Keppel the Island of Goree, on the coast of Africa. Cape Breton was also retaken by General Amherst; Fort Frontenac surrendered to Lieutenant-general Bradstreet, and Fort Du Quesne to General Forbes. It was well for Pitt's popularity that the fleet and army in America were thus successful; otherwise, from the temper of the king and the people, he would have been in danger of not only losing his popularity but his power as a minister. In 1759 the British arms were more successful; in May the Island of Guadaloupe surrendered to the English; and about the same time Maregalante, Santos, and Deseada, became subject to Great Britain. Later in the year was fought the great battle of Minden, in which about 7000 English defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops; and a great naval victory was also obtained by Admiral Boscawen. The affairs of the French were now desperate, their credit ruined, and they resolved to make an attempt to retrieve them by an invasion of Great Britain; but Boscawen attacked the Toulon squadron destined for the expedition near the Straits of Gibraltar, took three ships and burnt two. The great harvest of laurels obtained this year, however, was in Canada; where Quebec, the capital of French Canada, was captured by the gallant Wolfe, who fell at the moment of victory; but everything yielded to the British forces, and after this all Canada was conquered. These successes greatly increased Pitt's popularity; and in the session of Parliament which commenced in October all the supplies he demanded for the continuance of the war were readily granted. The army was fixed at more than 175,000 men in British pay; and Pitt is reported to have said: "Some time before I should have

been well contented to bring France on her knees; now I will not rest till I have laid her on her back."

In the beginning of the year 1760 Captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, made a descent on Carrickfergus in Ireland; but he was met on his return from thence by Captain Elliot, and defeated and killed.

While the arms of Great Britain thus prospered in every quarter of the globe the king was suddenly seized by death in his palace at Kensington. The right ventricle of his heart burst, causing an instantaneous and painless death. He expired on the 25th of October, 1760, in the thirty-fourth year of his reign and the seventy-seventh of his age, leaving his family firmly established on a long-disputed throne, and being taken away at the moment when the approaching extinction of sight and hearing made loss of life appear a desirable blessing.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.

1689. The siege of Londonderry, from April 20. to July 31.
The East India Company begin to acquire territory.
1690. The battle of the Boyne.
1694. The subscribers to a loan to the government incorporated as the Governor and Company of the Bank of England.
An act for the frequent meeting of Parliament, called the Triennial Act, passed.
1695. The first Eddystone Lighthouse begun.
1696. A steam-engine exhibited by Papin to the Royal Society, and another employed by Captain Savery for raising water.
1703. Sir Isaac Newton chosen president of the Royal Society, and annually re-elected till his death in 1727.
St. Petersburgh founded.
1714. The Elector of Hanover proclaimed King of England.
1715. The Earl of Mar raises the standard of the Pretender.
1716. The Pretender returns to France.
The Earl of Derwentwater and many others executed for supporting his claims.
1719. Two more ships sent in search of the north-west passage, and never return.
1720. The notorious South-Sea (bubble) Company formed.
Inoculation introduced into England.
The moss-rose brought from North America about this time.
1729. The House of Commons declares it a breach of privilege to publish their debates in a newspaper.
1732. The Pragmatic Sanction, securing the succession of the German empire to Maria Theresa, is ratified.
1733. The achromatic telescope constructed.
1738. Westminster Bridge begun, and finished ten years afterwards.
1743. A reward of 20,000*l.* offered by government for the discovery of a north-west passage.
1745. The young Pretender lands in Scotland. His troops defeat the king's at Preston Pans, and advance as far southward as Derby.
1746. The Pretender's force finally defeated at Culloden, and he himself obliged to fly to France.

A.D.
An act passed for disarming the Highland clans and prohibiting the Highland dress.
The electrical apparatus called the Leyden jar invented.
Two more ships sent to seek the north-west passage.
1752. The identity of lightning and electricity proved by Dr. Franklin.
1753. The British Museum established.

CHAP. XX.

THE RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, LITERATURE, ARTS, COMMERCE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, ETC., OF THIS PERIOD.

Religion. — THE Revolution which dethroned the family of the Stuarts was the victory of Protestantism, and, as such, the victory of the English Church; and this victory was complete. There were some, indeed, who were dissatisfied with it; but all their attempts to subvert the established order of things proved abortive; and as these attempts have been narrated in the foregoing pages, it is sufficient here to allude to them. In England the Revolution consolidated and confirmed the established episcopacy; but it had an opposite effect in Scotland, where it swept it utterly away, and in its place re-erected the old edifice of presbytery on broader and deeper foundations than ever. But in both countries the Revolution may, in reference to this matter, be regarded as the completion of the Reformation, or at least the accomplishment of the first aim of that great movement, the acquisition and secure establishment of a national church in harmony with the national faith. Popery was completely shorn of its strength, and laws were enacted which rendered it impossible for the Roman Catholics again to obtain power in England. By the Revolution, however, the generality of Protestant dissenters obtained greater liberty of conscience than they had ever before enjoyed. The Corporation and Test Acts, indeed, still remained on the statute-book; but the people were mostly left free to worship God in the manner most agreeable to their own consciences, and the liberty they enjoyed is proved by the establishment of several new sects both in England and Scotland. Methodism took its rise in this period. It sprung up originally in England, but was planted also in America, Scotland, and Ireland. Its founders were John Wesley and George Whitfield, whose labours were chiefly confined to the labouring population; and it is amongst them that Methodism has chiefly flourished to this day.

Government.—With the present period a new era in our constitutional history commenced. There were no more attempts on the part of the English monarchs to render themselves absolute; but the monarchy was strictly and definitively limited by law. It had, indeed, been limited by law before; but it was found to be one thing to place a law on the statute roll and another to enforce it: now, however, the kings of England felt it their interest as well as their duty to govern by the laws of the kingdom. The Revolution had taught a lesson not soon to be forgotten; and introduced a race of kings less disposed to the assumption of arbitrary power than the family of the Stuarts: moreover, a claim could no longer be laid to the crown merely on the score of hereditary right, since, though a descendant of the old family had been placed on the throne, she was not the next in succession; and the choice was therefore as much opposed to hereditary right as if a total stranger had been elected king. Hence all the mischiefs which have their source in —

"The right divine of kings to govern wrong"—

were completely swept away, and both the kings of England and their people united in a due observance of the laws and constitution of the kingdom.

Literature.—It has been remarked that the Revolution, brought on by some of the causes that had given birth to the Commonwealth, and restoring something of the same spirit and condition of things, came like another nightfall upon our literature, extinguishing whatever was poetical in the land still more completely than even that previous triumph of the popular principle. Up to this period English literature had grown and flourished chiefly in the sunshine of Court protection and favour; and, whatever were the faults of the Stuarts, the high praise must be given them of encouraging learning and literary merit. When they were dethroned literature was left to the public appreciation; and this not being at the time sufficiently extensive to afford it the necessary warmth and shelter, it naturally languished. The spirit and affections of literature were still in the main courtly; and when the encouragement of the court was withdrawn, it drooped and withered, from the deprivation of its customary support and sustenance. The state of literature in the time of William III., partly no doubt from the effects of the frivolity and depravity of the preceding period, was much depressed; but in the reign of Queen Anne it again flourished vigorously, and there appeared a crowd of great men, whose characters are well known, and whose names are familiar to every one acquainted with the literature of his country. Swift, Addison, Rowe, Steele, Prior, Pope, Congreve, and others not only enjoyed the friendship and

familiarity of those in power, but most of these men obtained places in some of the less burdensome departments of government, which put it in their power to pass the rest of their days in ease and independence. Several men of genius united in furnishing the public with a daily paper, under the name of the Spectator; which greatly contributed to improve both the manners and tastes of the people. The ministers of George I. were patrons of literature, and some of them were no mean proficients themselves; and the reign of George II. also produced a great number of learned and ingenious writers. The bench of bishops was never better provided with able prelates than it was at the commencement of his reign; a proof that the nobility and ministry were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition the favour of the public now began to compensate for the coldness of the court. A taste for literature had been excited in the general public; and it was usually well supported. After the rebellion in 1745, when Pelham was considered first minister, the government showed less indifference to literature, and men of genius began again to bask in the sunshine of royal favour. Although, therefore, at the commencement of this period it drooped, at its close it again flourished; and though few great poets existed, prose writers of celebrity abounded, whose works are still purchased, and read with pleasure and profit.

Arts.—The arts were in a very low state during this period. Painting was generally degraded throughout Europe; in Italy art was almost extinct; the French school was on the decline; the sources were now dried up or vitiated, from which the demands of England had hitherto been satisfied; and sculpture had no higher name to mention than that of Bernini. Architecture flourished under Wren and Vanbrugh; but when they died no one was found worthy to succeed them except Inigo Jones. Agriculture, however, was improved in this period. The English system of gardening was now introduced by William Kent; and with little talent for any other art except that useful one, the art of rising in the world, Kent professed himself a painter, sculptor, and architect, and contrived to establish and maintain through life the reputation of a universal genius. His only title to the extraordinary reputation he obtained, however, lies in his talent for landscape gardening; but on this ground his fame rests on a substantial basis. Kent taught his pupils to imitate nature, or, more properly speaking, to act upon her plan in forming pleasure-grounds, instead of impressing upon every natural object the hard stamp of art. He taught that the perfection of gardening consists in humouring and adorning, not in constraining nature; that the whole secret of good gardening consists in making proper use of natural scenery, wood and water,

hill and valley, in conjunction with architecture, so as to give beauty and variety to the embellished ground; in judiciously veiling and exposing the surrounding country; and in contrasting the luxuriant meadow with the barren heath, the verdant slope with the rugged steep, the sylvan temple with the ruined tower, the meandering rill with the majestic river, and the smooth surface of the lake with nature's most sublime object, the ocean.

Engraving made great progress in this period, a very desirable thing, as historical pictures can only become the property of the rich, and are liable to be injured by time or accident; while by the art of engraving copies may be multiplied at a moderate price. Hogarth commenced his career as an engraver; but this great and original genius soon felt his strength, and aspired to something beyond this occupation. He formed, indeed, a new school in painting, and his works are unlike those of any other man. "He belonged to no school of art — he was the produce of no academy; no man, living or dead, had any share in forming his mind or in rendering his hand skilful. He was the spontaneous offspring of the graphic spirit of his country; as native to the heart of England as independence is; and he may be fairly called, in his own walk, the firstborn of her spirit. He painted life as he saw it. He gives no visions of bygone things — no splendid images of ancient manners: he regards neither the historian's page nor the poet's song: he was content with the occurrences of the passing day, with the folly or sin of the hour; but to the garb or fashion of the moment he adds story and sentiment for all time."

Music made vast strides in the British dominions during the period between the Revolution and the reign of George III.; and the improvement was equally observable in the church, the chamber, and the theatre. Among the names of distinguished composers may be mentioned those of Purcell, Handel, Playford, Eccles, Haydn, Arne, Carey, and Leveridge; and there were also many able writers on the science of music, as Holden, Malcolm, Smith, Avison, and Pepusch. Academies of music were formed at this period, and also a club under the name of the Madrigal Society.

Commerce. — At the commencement of this period the Revolution, having brought on a war with France, commerce, which had been rapidly increasing, became again depressed. So greatly, indeed, were the resources of the country cut off, that at the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, the kingdom seems to have felt like a man staggering with fatigue and weakness. On the return of peace, however, the spirit of enterprise reopened the channels of industry and commerce, and from that time there was a gradual and steady expansion of the stream. The active spirit of our national in-

dustry, and the growth of our trade and manufactures, were shown by nothing more remarkably than by the continued extention of the metropolis and most of our other long-established centres of population; and the rapid rise of several places of insignificance to the rank of great towns. In London no less than eight parishes were erected in this period; and Bristol, Hull, Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Frome, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Dublin each derived a large accession of population, some of them to the extent of several times the numbers they contained at the period of the Revolution. One of the sources to which our commerce owed its gradual and steady expansion was the growing importance of our possessions in the islands and on the continent of America. Great numbers of people had emigrated to those colonies within the present period; and hence they enlarged their boundaries and became of the utmost importance to the mother country. The most beneficial trade arose from the colonies in the West India islands; but the East India trade also was rendered more important than it had been in any previous period. It may likewise be noticed that England now became a corn-exporting country, though not to a very considerable extent.

Manners, Customs, &c.— The costume of this period underwent several alterations in the different reigns; but as it is familiar from various prints, no further notice is required. The same may be said of the furniture of our English mansions; for the commencement of the eighteenth century provided them with nearly every article of convenience or luxury which they at present possess. These articles, indeed, were often made in so superior a style in respect both of elegance of form and durability of material, that they are now eagerly sought after, and imitations widely fabricated to meet the demand.

The circumstances in which the present period commenced had the effect of diffusing political partisanship throughout English society; party spirit took possession of all classes, and gave rise to various new habits of life, extensively influencing the manners and customs of the time. Old and young, rich and poor, men and women, became politicians; and contentions about affairs of state not only overran literature and religion, the coffee-house and the church, but the places of public amusement, and the very street merriments of the people. Punch abandoned his domestic brawls for public feuds, and might be heard at the corners of streets gibbering for or against the existing order of things at the pleasure of his employer. Female politicians abounded. Ladies were known to be of a certain political party by the arrangement of their patches. The Spectator gives a humorous account of a Whig lady who had a natural mole, like a patch, upon the Tory side of her

brow, by which she was sometimes taken for an ally by her political opponents; and thus, like a privateer under false colours, she often sunk the enemy by an unexpected broadside. At the theatre the female Whigs and Tories sat upon opposite sides of the house; and those who remained neutral in politics patched both sides of the brow, and occupied the middle boxes. The men met to discuss politics in club-, coffee-, and chocolate-houses; and club-houses were so numerous, that there was one for almost every parish, in which the people met to regale themselves and to find fault with the management of public affairs. In these places politicians were wont to meet to settle questions concerning the balance of power in Europe, to crown and depose kings at pleasure, and to prove that England was on the brink of ruin. The tradesman and the merchant forsook the shop and the warehouse to take care of the state and harangue upon the misconduct of the ministry, without thinking of their own; and, as a necessary consequence, the approaches to a club-house served as an ambush for bailiffs and bailiffs' followers; and it frequently happened that financiers, after they had satisfactorily cleared off the debts of the nation, were carried to the sponging-house for being unable to settle a small private bill.

Education at this period was very superficial; and the substance of a finished education for a young gentleman was a little Latin and less Greek. When a youth had been whipped through the parts of speech and was able to construe a few "nonsense verses" he was considered qualified to shine equally in the senate or at a masquerade. To these he added the accomplishment of dancing, and perhaps a little music; and the grand finish to his education was the tour of Europe, whither he was sent, as it were in leading strings, to gaze ignorantly at streets, mountains, rivers, and trees. The state of female education was equally deplorable. In boarding-school advertisements it was professed young women should be soberly educated, and taught all sorts of learning fit for them. A young lady's education was indeed made short work of; for by the time she was fourteen she was usually introduced into society, and taught to show off her personal attractions, in order to obtain a good marriage; and, thus launched into life, it is no wonder that the characteristics of both sexes were lightness and frivolity, and that they were often led into errors that blighted their prospects for life.

This defective state of education led of course to great evils in the community; and the annals of the day are filled with descriptions of eccentric and unprincipled men, by whose turbulent conduct the peace of society was outraged. There were fellows who, assuming the dress and titles of military officers, cheated coachmen,

thrust themselves into the theatres gratis, and forced quarrels upon the peaceably disposed at public places; there were Darby captains who attended gaming-houses; there were Tash captains, whose occupation was too infamous to name; and there were Cock-and-bottle captains, whose vocation consisted in beating bailiffs and doing such other exploits for hire. Of all the turbulent ruffians of this period, however, none were so distinguished as the Mohocks. These fellows assumed the name and outdid the atrocities of a tribe of Indian savages. They acted under a president, whom they styled Emperor of the Mohocks; and their aim was to excel each other in wanton outrages upon the peace of society. Their brutalities were, as may be supposed, generally committed under the influence of liquor, of which they drank to excess. One favourite sport was to attack watchmen, who at that time were generally weak, broken-down old men unable to make any successful resistance; another, to make people cut capers, by thrusting swords into their legs; and they took a particular delight in placing women in empty barrels, and then rolling them down Snow-hill. Lives were of course often endangered by the outrageous conduct of these Mohocks; and Swift, in his letters to Stella, says that while he was in London he was frequently fearful of being maimed or even murdered by them.

Another evil arising out of the defective state of education was that of superstition. Almost every mansion was believed to be haunted by a ghost, and every parish tormented by a witch. Fortune-telling was a most thriving occupation, both in town and country; the customers of the seer or sibyl not being merely people of low degree, but also those of the highest rank. Even the wise and the learned, it appears, had not yet shaken themselves loose from such unintellectual thraldom; for Dryden calculated nativities, Steele nearly ruined himself in seeking after the grand *Magisterium*, and Whiston not only believed in the miracle of Mary Tofts, who was said to have brought forth a warren of rabbits, but endeavoured to prove that she was announced in the prophecies of Ezekiel. These hallucinations continued to linger even among literary men, until they were finally laid with the Cock-lane ghost.

Among the amusements that illustrate the character of this period, watering-places may be first mentioned. Medicinal springs had long been known, to which the diseased, the hypochondriacal, and idle had flocked; and as the healing waters increased in reputation, it became fashionable to spend the summer season in their neighbourhood. Bath was one of the chief places of resort; and next to Bath, Tunbridge and Epsom wells were in the greatest repute; but as the luxuries of these places were as expensive

as they were fashionable, people of moderate fortunes contented themselves with the more accessible mineral springs of Islington, to which they repaired with their families, and where they imitated the amusements of the more fashionable watering-places. Play-going was still frequent, without the theatre having undergone any moral improvement; and the same sort of plays were acted, and the same license in behaviour tolerated, as had prevailed during the reign of Charles II. Balls were held in halls or taverns for the entertainment of the lower classes. Hampstead was a noted place for such merry meetings; and the excesses to which they led were so infamous, that at one time no respectable tradesman cared to be seen in that beautiful suburban village. Shooting-matches were at this time common in the outskirts of London; but the chief outdoor sports were football, bowls, skittles, and cricket: but prize-fights were also frequent, at which the common weapons were broadsword, sword, dagger, or the single-stick. These gladiators mangled each other for the amusement of the crowd, and devoted themselves to their savage calling as to a regular trade, subsisting upon the subscription purses or admittance fees. Public fairs were more attended at this period than they had ever been in England; and that of Bartholomew was, in particular, a noted place of resort, every parish in the metropolis discharging its population into Smithfield when the fair commenced as into a vast reservoir. The noble and the mean mingled there to take their fill of pleasure, while pickpockets and sharpers prowled about to take advantage of their folly. The amusements of gentlemen in the country differed of course from those of gentlemen in London; their chief domestic entertainments were anniversary festivals, which the progress of fashion had as yet left almost untouched. Other amusements out of doors were hunting, shooting, and fishing; and in doors, card-playing, dancing, and music. As for the manners of the peasantry, they still exhibited much of the simplicity by which they had been characterised in the days of Elizabeth. The toils and occupations of the rustics continued to be enlivened chiefly by wakes and fairs, which were thronged with puppet-shows, pedlars' stalls, raffling-tables, and drinking-booths; while the peasants themselves contended with each other in wrestling, grinning through a horse's collar, cudgel-playing, and foot-racing. There were also trials in whistling, where the person who could whistle through a whole tune without being put out by the drolleries of a merryandrew that were played off before him, was the victor. Contentions of this nature were frequent during the celebration of the annual church festivals, and especially at Christmas; and very often seasons which should have been kept holy were used only as occasions for the display of mummery and buffoonery.

CHAP. XXI.

THE PERIOD FROM THE ACCESSION OF GEORGE III. TO THE ACCESSION OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

GREAT BRITAIN.	FRANCE.	GERMANY.	SPAIN.	PRUSSIA.	RUSSIA.
1760. George III.	Louis XV. (1715)	Francis I. (1745)	Charles III. (1759)	Frederic II. (1740)	Elizabeth (1741).
1762. ...	...	...	...	...	Peter III.
...	...	...	...	...	Catherine II.
1765. ...	...	Joseph II.	...	...	...
1774. ...	Louis XVI.	...	Charles IV.	...	...
1786. ...	...	...	...	Frederic-Wm. II.	...
1790. ...	...	Leopold II.	...	...	...
1792. ...	Republic	...	...	...	...
1796. ...	...	Francis II.	...	...	Paul I.
1797. ...	...	...	...	Frederic-Wm. III.	...
1799. ...	Napoleon Buonaparte 1st consul	..	...	...	...
1800. ...	...	...	...	...	Alexander I.
1804. ...	Napoleon emperor	Empire of Germany ceases & that of AUSTRIA begins. Francis I.	...	...	...
1808. ...	...	...	Ferdinand VII.	...	...
1814. ...	Louis XVIII.	...	Joseph Buonaparte	...	...
1820. George IV.	...	...	...	...	...
1824. ...	Charles X.	...	...	...	...
1829. ...	...	...	...	...	Nicholas I.
1830. William IV.	Louis-Philippe	...	...	...	...
1835. ...	...	Ferdinand II.	Isabella II.	...	...
1837. Victoria	...	...	...	...	...

GEORGE III.

PART I.

GEORGE II. was succeeded by his grandson; who, upon the death of his father Frederick, Prince of Wales, had become heir-apparent to the throne. His Majesty's first care, after his accession, was to assemble the Parliament, to whom he made a speech, in which he laid great stress upon his being born and educated a Briton; and from this circumstance, and from the general tenor of his speech, the people conceived the fondest hopes of a happy reign. Few sovereigns, indeed, ever ascended the throne of England under more auspicious circumstances. The kingdom was in a flourishing state, victorious and happy on the whole, though engaged in war. The king called this war a war "for the Protestant interest," and asked the assistance of Parliament to prosecute it with vigour; but it was soon found that in his own mind he was favourable to peace. In 1661 Pitt discovered that a private treaty had been lately entered into between France and Spain, termed the "Family Compact;" and he proposed in council that a fleet should be sent to intercept the Spanish flotilla, or to block up Cadiz. When this proposal was overruled, Pitt, together with Lord Temple, resigned office, a pension of 3,000*l.* per annum being settled on the former for three lives, and a peerage conferred on his wife and her issue.

In 1761 George III. was married to Charlotte, Princess of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, a small but sovereign German state. Their Majesties were crowned at Westminster Abbey on the 22nd of September. This coronation could boast of one very unusual and curious spectator; namely, Charles Edward Stuart, the young Pretender, who came over in disguise to witness the coronation of a king on the throne which he considered to be by right his father's or his own. It has been said that the king knew he was in the capital, and that he would not have him molested: a proof of humanity of disposition as well as of his feeling himself secure in the hearts of his people.

The close of the year 1761 left the affairs of Europe, both military and political, in a very remarkable situation. Endeavours had been made to bring about a peace; but they had served only to increase the animosity of the contending nations; and Great Britain has seldom been in a more critical situation than at this time; for she was engaged in a war with all the great continental powers, and the greatest part of the maritime strength of Europe: success, however, attended her arms, both by sea and land. In the month

of February Martinique, the chief of the French Caribbee Islands, was reduced by Admiral Rodney and and General Moreton; and this conquest was speedily followed by the surrender of Grenada, the Grenadines, St. Lucie, St. Vincent, and Tobago. Great Britain remained in possession of the entire chain of the Caribbees. Havannah, the capital of the Isle of Cuba, was also taken by the British; and Manilla, the capital of the Philippine Islands, in the East Indies, was reduced by Admiral Cornish and General Draper. These blows were struck at the power of Spain; and they were followed by the capture of a Spanish register ship, which added another million sterling to these valuable acquirements: the English forces, moreover, defeated the Spaniards in several encounters in Portugal; and such were the bitter fruits derived by Spain from the war within ten short months, that a war with England became so unpopular as to make the people cry out for "Peace with England, and war with all the world!"

In 1762 Lord Bute succeeded the Duke of Newcastle as first lord of the Treasury; and the resignation of this high-minded nobleman, who was considered the head of the Whig interest, was followed by that of several others of great rank and influence. At this time the accumulated disasters of the war disposed the Bourbon powers to peace, and Lord Bute, pressed by a powerful opposition, and fearing their triumph if the war continued, willingly accepted the proposals made to him. In a short space of time, therefore, France and Spain on one side, and England and Portugal on the other, signed at Fontainbleau the preliminaries, and at Paris, in 1763, the definitive treaty of peace. Prussia also concluded a peace at Hubertsberg with Austria and Saxony, and by these treaties England recovered Minorca and retained Acadia, all Canada to the Mississippi, Cape Breton, and all the islands and coasts of the River St. Lawrence and of the gulf into which it empties. In the West Indies England was to have Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominique, and Tobago; and in Africa the French possessions on the Senegal. From Spain England obtained all Florida ceded as far as the Mississippi, with permission to fell dye-wood in the Bay of Honduras and in other places of the Spanish territory. In return for these concessions England restored to the Bourbon crowns all her other great conquests. Thus ended the Seven Years' War. Great Britain improved the peace by consolidating and extending her power in the East Indies and in all parts of the world; and in elevating her commerce and diminishing her debt, which had been greatly augmented. At the close of this war the National Debt amounted to 156,500,000*l.*; but the treasures of the East and West Indies, and the commercial gain from all parts of the world, rendered this burden not very oppressive to the people.

Political dissensions arose out of this peace. The anti-ministerialists maintained that the peace was inadequate to our successes, and that the interests of the nation had been sacrificed in order to render Lord Bute secure and permanent in his office. On the other hand, Bute and his friends as strenuously insisted that all the objects for which the war had commenced were obtained and confirmed by the peace; and that the nation was so exhausted, both with respect to men and money, that supplies for carrying on the war for another year could not be raised without involving the country in difficulties and distress. The debates in both Houses were very warm on this subject; and the opposition was distinguished by the title of "The Glorious Minority." In addition to the popular clamour excited against Bute on the score of favouritism, and on account of the peace, a tax laid on cider, subjecting it to the law of excise, occasioned such violent attacks on him, that he resigned. He was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville.

Many furious papers and pamphlets were published by the partisans of both sides: one of the most violent of which was the North Briton; a paper conducted by Mr. Wilkes, member for Aylesbury. The speech of his Majesty having been attacked in the forty-fifth number of this paper with indecent freedom, the Earls of Halifax and Egremont, secretaries of state, issued a general warrant for apprehending the printer and publisher of the said libel, as well as of Wilkes, who was sent to the Tower. His papers were seized at the same time; but, upon his being brought up to the Court of Common Pleas, he was released, as the court was of opinion that the privilege of Parliament extended to libels. This prosecution rendered Wilkes the most popular man of his day, and in the cry of the populace, "Wilkes and Liberty" were constantly joined.

In 1764 a series of resolutions was passed in Parliament respecting new duties to be laid on foreign goods imported by the Americans, and certain restrictions were also laid upon the profitable contraband trade carried on by the Americans with the Spanish colonies. These measures gave rise to great discontent in America, which was alluded to in the king's speech on the opening of the session in 1765; but, unwarned by these symptoms of disaffection, Grenville brought forward and carried an act for laying nearly the same stamp duties on the Americans as were payable at the time in England. It was predicted by Colonel Barré, who had served beyond the Atlantic, and who knew the people and the country well, that this act would induce rebellion, and so it did: the passing of this American Stamp Act was the spark that first kindled a conflagration which subsequently enveloped a great part of Europe, as well as North America, in its flames.

In this year the king was slightly attacked with the mental

malady which afterwards repeatedly afflicted him, and finally incapacitated him for the duties of government. On his restoration a change took place in the ministry. A new administration was formed (called the Rockingham administration, from the Marquis of Rockingham being appointed first lord of the Treasury), whose chief business was to undo all that their predecessors had done particularly by repealing the Cider and Stamp Acts; but it did not stand long, and in 1766 another entire change of administration took place. The Duke of Grafton succeeded the Marquis of Rockingham as first lord of the Treasury: several other alterations were made in the inferior offices, and the custody of the privy seal was bestowed on Mr. Pitt, now created Earl of Chatham.

About this time peace was established in the East Indies by Lord Clive, who returned to England in 1767; but a new enemy soon appeared in that quarter of the globe. Hyder Ally, who from the rank of a common soldier had risen to the dignity of a prince, and who ruled over a large tract of land on the Malabar coast, had, in confederacy with the viceroy of the Deccan, declared war against the English. The council of Madras sent a body of troops, under Colonel Smith, who obtained a complete victory over them, when the viceroy immediately made peace with the English. Hyder Ally took refuge among the mountains, from whence he made frequent incursions; but peace was finally proposed to him, and accepted.

In 1768 the fire which had been for some time smouldering between Great Britain and the colonies of America burst forth into flame. During the last session of Parliament duties were laid on paper, glass, and other articles, to be paid upon their importation into America from England. This was considered by the Americans as a fresh invasion of their chartered rights; and the General Assembly came to a resolution to discontinue the use of all British manufactures till these duties were repealed. In this respect they were soon gratified, for in 1770 a new act was passed, which abolished the impost upon all articles of commerce except tea. From the smallness of this impost it was clear that the sole object of England was to establish as a principle the right of taxation; but the Americans perceived this design, and united to resist it: they refused to receive tea upon which an impost was laid; and any one who would purchase it was declared infamous. Finally, in 1773, some cargoes of tea which had arrived at Boston were thrown into the sea by armed inhabitants of that city, who had disguised themselves in the dress of Mohawk Indians, and several other cities on the coast imitated the example of Boston.

While ministers were thus opposed in the American colonies they were embarrassed at home. After Wilkes had been set at liberty for the libel in the forty-fifth number of the North Briton,

he put forth another libel against a member of Parliament of the name of Martin, who took the law into his own hands, challenged Wilkes, and in the duel which ensued wounded him so severely, that he was compelled to retire to France for the recovery of his health. While there Wilkes was expelled from the House of Commons and outlawed, for not appearing to plead to bills of indictment preferred against him for various other libels. In 1768, however, when a new election took place, Wilkes contrived to get himself elected for the county of Middlesex; which caused such great excitement that for weeks and months the court and cabinet attended to the business of this demagogue, to the exclusion of almost everything else. After his election Wilkes surrendered to the Court of King's Bench; and by this proceeding he got his outlawry reversed, though he was fined 1000*l.* and sentenced to be imprisoned for two years. His struggles, however, were not yet at an end. The House declared him incapable of being re-elected; but a new election took place, and he was again returned. He was again rejected, and again re-elected; and now at last he triumphed; for, intimidated by the people, who took up his cause with warmth, government discontinued the prosecution; Wilkes went from prison to Parliament; and his debts, amounting to 20,000*l.*, were paid by subscription. It was well said by the Earl of Chatham, however, that it was through the misconduct of ministers that Wilkes became a person of consequence in the state; his merits would never have gained for him any popularity; but for several years he continued to be a thorn in the sides of government and the idol of the people, until he finally sank into well-merited contempt.

The embarrassment of ministers caused several resignations; and among these was that of the Duke of Grafton, who resigned his office of first lord of the Treasury, and was succeeded by Lord North, already chancellor of the Exchequer. Subsequently the Duke of Grafton accepted the privy seal; but he made it a condition that he should not attend the cabinet. The restoration of Grafton caused a great sensation; and it especially called forth the atrabilious rancour of Junius, a powerful anonymous writer of that time, who prided himself on having driven his grace into retirement. Who this writer under the feigned name of Junius was has remained to the present day a mystery.

Disorders and discontents continued to prevail, and every day to increase in all the American colonies, and at length, in 1774, war broke out; a war which England at first thought to stifle with a handful of soldiers. General Gage, with four regiments, blockaded Boston, hoping to effect immediately the subjugation of that province and that of all the other colonies. The port of Boston was to be closed, according to the direction of the British Parliament,

until the East India Company should be indemnified for the loss of the tea; the charter of King William III., and with this its constitution, was to be taken from the province of Massachusetts Bay; all rights of government were to be transferred to the king, or the servants appointed by him; and severe punishments were to be inflicted upon all participants in disorders or rebellion. But these rigorous measures, instead of bending the spirit of the colonies, had the very opposite effect. Preparations were made for resistance with a prudence and circumspection as remarkable as their firmness and boldness; and unity, patriotic devotedness, and a noble ardour for liberty prevailed throughout the provinces and in all classes of society. Upon the first intelligence of these severe decrees it was resolved to suspend all commerce with Great Britain until those acts were repealed; and all the provinces declared their willingness and zeal to succour the oppressed city of Boston. A General Congress assembled in Philadelphia, which took the direction of the common cause and resolved to promote the work of liberation; but, hostile as the preparations, ordinances, and prohibitions appeared on both sides, for some time no blood was shed. Hot debates occurred in the British Parliament on the subject, and many advocated the repeal of the obnoxious decrees; but ministers were firm, or, as others said, obstinate. Envoys were sent from America to endeavour to heal the breach, but their demands were not conceded; conciliatory motions were made in Parliament, but they were not regarded. At length the storm which had so long threatened burst forth in all its fury. In 1775 General Gage sent troops from Boston in order to seize at Concord some heads of the liberal party, and at the same time to destroy some military stores deposited there; and this occasioned the first bloody engagement, which took place at Lexington. It was of doubtful issue; but in its effects favourable to the cause of the Americans, since it increased their courage and animosity. A considerable force assembled and marched against Boston; and the battle of Bunker's-hill, an eminence not far from that city, in which the Americans were successful, gave the English a fearful foreboding of the difficulties they would have to encounter. At this time Congress had appointed George Washington commander-in-chief of all the American forces; a man who in every way proved worthy of the trust reposed in him. His appointment created confidence; the inhabitants of the provinces breathed nothing but war, and all the men fit for service, and even all the youth capable of bearing arms, prepared for the struggle.

A bold attempt was made by the provincials upon Canada, where a small body of volunteers under Ethan Allen, who resembled a Puritan of the old times, took by surprise the fortresses of Ticon-

derago, Crown Point, and Skenesborough. This success encouraged Congress to make a bold expedition against Canada; and two bodies of American troops, the one under the command of Montgomery, the other under that of Arnold, invaded the country. Montgomery, after some successful engagements, captured St. John's and Montreal; and then, uniting his forces with Arnold, laid siege to Quebec. But in a storm upon this strong city Montgomery lost his life; and the English remained masters of Canada. In Virginia the Americans were more successful: the English governors were driven from thence, and the banner of liberty waved triumphantly in this fine country.

The British Parliament however still maintained a warlike attitude. In the session which commenced in the autumn of 1775 and closed in the spring of 1776 Mr. Burke proposed to redress the American grievances; but a resolution moved by him to that effect was lost by a majority of two to one. The warlike ardour of the country gentlemen, however, was considerably cooled when Lord North moved that the land-tax should be raised to four shillings in the pound; and some of the opposition ironically congratulated them upon this first-fruits of their darling coercive American measures, while others attempted to show that it would be a perpetual mortgage on their estates.

General Howe had succeeded Gage in the command at Boston, but he was not more successful; and in 1776 Washington took possession of it, and Howe removed his troops to Halifax. In the same year the English suffered considerably in a fruitless attack on Charlestown; but Howe drove the Americans out of Long Island, and took possession of New York. Offers of reconciliation were now made by Howe; but they were rejected, and Sir Peter Parker and General Clinton took Rhode Island; and the English also made some incursions into the Jerseys. On the other hand, Washington surprised and took prisoners nearly 1000 Hessian troops in the British service, with several stands of arms. The Americans then sent Franklin to the court of Louis XVI., to seek the assistance of France: and, though, as France was at peace with England, decorum did not permit open negotiation with rebellious subjects and the request was refused, yet public officers were suffered to go to America clandestinely, and munitions of war were privately transmitted. Congress now declared the united colonies an independent state; the fundamental articles of the federal constitution were forthwith published; and henceforth there was no possibility of return: America had placed herself between magnificence and ruin.

In 1777 a bill was passed in Parliament granting letters of marque and reprisal against the Americans, whose privateers were

swarming not merely among our West Indian islands, but also in the seas of Europe. Another bill passed, giving the king permission to secure and detain persons charged with or suspected of the crime of high-treason in America or on the high seas, or of piracy. Earl Chatham moved an address for the immediate cessation of hostilities in America; but there were few who supported him, and his motion was negatived. Chatham had been, it was thought, imposed on by Franklin, who led him to believe that the Americans were not aiming at independence, or he would have been the first man to advocate war, and the last to propose peace.

The operations of the war this year were various: there were two actions between Howe and Washington, and Philadelphia surrendered to the former. Burgoyne reconquered all that the Americans had gained in Canada; but having penetrated into America as far as the banks of the Hudson, his retreat to Canada was cut off, and he surrendered to General Gates with his whole army. An expedition under Clinton up the north river was more successful; and this general soon after succeeded Howe as commander-in-chief, and took up his position at New York. On the whole the campaign was favourable to the British; but the advantages they gained did not compensate for the expense of blood and time which they had cost. Washington yielded somewhat to the English superiority; but he was not conquered, and the capture of Burgoyne's army, consisting of 10,000 men of the finest British and German troops, was also a terrible loss to the English at this juncture, for on these troops the proudest hopes had been built.

The cause of America now appeared so well fortified that France thought it no longer dangerous to acknowledge the new republic, and even to contract an alliance with it; and accordingly a treaty of commerce first, and then, early in 1778, a treaty of alliance, was concluded with America; and Franklin, who had conducted the negotiations, as minister and plenipotentiary of the United States, appeared dignified and venerated at the court of France. The immediate result of this was war between that country and England, and a French fleet under Count d'Estaing was sent to the coast of America to her assistance. Affairs now wore so gloomy an aspect that commissioners were sent by the British government to treat for peace; but it was too late, and the offers made were proudly rejected. The war was carried on with mutual animosity, and the whole of Georgia was reduced by the British forces. A sea-fight took place between an English fleet under the command of Admiral Keppel, and a French fleet under Count d'Orvilliers; but there was neither victory nor defeat on either side. Censure was passed on Vice-admiral Palliser's conduct on this occasion;

and he applied to Keppel for redress, which was denied. Palliser then exhibited articles of accusation against Keppel, who was tried by a court-martial, and honourably acquitted.

The flames of war still continued to spread. In 1779 Spain joined France, in virtue of the Family Compact. In the following year Great Britain was compelled to declare war against Holland, to prevent this republic joining America. The project of a treaty of alliance and commerce, found on board of a Dutch vessel captured by the English, justified this resolution. About this time also England experienced sensible detriment by the system of an armed neutrality established by Russia. This system, which was designed to prevent the injurious restrictions imposed upon neutral flags, was adopted by Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, Spain, France, Holland, and almost all the neutral powers. By it the neutral flag could cover the commerce of the enemies of England, and convey the materials for ship-building from the north into the ports of France and Spain. To add to these embarrassments, a war was commenced in India against the British; and Hyder Ally, leagued with the Mahratta power, conquered a large extent of country and victoriously marched into the Carnatic; but, though surrounded with enemies, England did not succumb: she fought them with a courage, a perseverance, and power that excited the astonishment of the world; and, notwithstanding all disasters, increased the splendour of the empire and extended the glory of the nation.

The war with America was the chief topic which engaged the attention of the British Parliament for a series of years. The minority was against its continuance, and made repeated attempts to put an end to it; but the majority was in favour of it, and therefore it was prolonged. Ministers especially advocated war; and the sentiments of the king were in complete unison with theirs, for the Americans were considered rebellious children, and force was deemed the only method of restoring them to their duty and loyalty.

War was now waged by land and sea in all parts of the world; battles, heroic exploits, victories, and defeats quickly succeeded one another, till at length the belligerent powers, weary and exhausted, unanimously desired and agreed upon peace. The events of the war, after the subjugation of Georgia, were briefly these.

In New England, where the two main armies had stood opposed to one another, almost total inactivity prevailed for two years. Clinton, enfeebled by sending off many detachments, abstained from any important offensive operations; and Washington, whose army was smaller and in want of provisions, clothing, and the ammunitions of war, could not derive any advantage from his adversary's weakness. The conquest of Georgia encouraged the English

to carry their arms into the southern provinces; and in 1780 Clinton sailed from Rhode Island to South Carolina, and conquered Charlestown. A numerous artillery, several ships of war, and about 6000 men fell, with this important fortress, into the hands of the British. About the same time Sir George Rodney, with a large fleet, captured five Spanish ships of the line; one of which was lost by being driven on shore, and another was blown up. Blood also flowed in Africa and in the East Indies. The French made themselves masters of the English possessions in Senegal, while all the French possessions in the East Indies fell into the hands of England. Fleets of merchantmen were captured on both sides; and the most intimate relations of private life suffered terribly from the evils of war.

The year 1781 was distinguished by a desperate engagement near Dogger Bank, between a squadron of English ships under Admiral Parker, and an equal squadron of Dutch ships commanded by Admiral Zoutman. The action was maintained four hours with equal gallantry on both sides, but to whom the victory belonged remained doubtful: Zoutman sailed for the Texel, and Parker's ships were too much disabled to follow him. In America the war was this year disastrous to the British arms. After Clinton's victory at Charlestown he returned to New York, leaving Lord Cornwallis in South Carolina. Cornwallis defeated General Gates at Camden, and then marched into North Carolina, where he continued his conquests. Arnold also, who had deserted from the American cause, spread terror widely in Virginia and Connecticut. Cornwallis finally took up his position at York Town; but here his victorious career was checked. On a sudden he was surrounded by the troops of Washington and a French force under Rochambeau and Lafayette; and thus, cut off from all aid, he was compelled to surrender, with his whole army, amounting to 6,000 men, to the victorious enemy. About the same time the French admiral De Grasse repulsed the English fleet under Hood and Graves, which had been intended to remove Cornwallis and his forces from their position at the mouth of the York River; and by this blow America became free. England had now no hope of reconquest; and though she continued the war, it was only defensively. Savannah and Charlestown were evacuated, and the British troops occupied New York alone until the peace.

The events of the war with other powers this year were various. In America the Spaniards conquered the English fortresses on the Mississippi, as well as Pensacola and Florida, and in Europe they conquered Minorca; but all their efforts against Gibraltar proved fruitless. The valiant Elliott repulsed all the attacks of the combined French and Spanish forces, and immortalised his name especially by destroying the floating-batteries which the Bourbon

powers had fitted out against this strong fortress. A continuous shower of balls made red-hot in furnaces poured upon them from the cannon of the fortress, set them on fire, and burnt most of them down to the water's edge. In the West Indies Rodney saved the Island of Jamaica; and the preponderance of the English trident was manifested by a great victory over the French admiral De Grasse near Guadaloupe. On the other hand, Admiral Suffrein fought four times successfully against the English fleet in the East Indies, and obtained for the flag of France the final ascendency. Tippoo Saib, Hyder Ally's son and successor, aided by France, also fought with success against the British power; but the final European peace, which deprived him of French assistance, arrested his victorious career, and he was compelled to sign a treaty of peace.

The support which Lord North's administration had received in carrying on the war had now for several years been on the decrease: ministers lost ground upon almost every question; and in 1782 the Whig opposition, making an adroit use of the reverses of the war against the Tories in power, overthrew them, and a complete and radical change took place in the administration. The Marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the Treasury; and associated with him in the government were Shelburne, Fox, Burke, Camden, Richmond, Keppel, Cavendish, and the young William Pitt. Rockingham having died soon afterwards, his place was filled by the Earl of Shelburne. Negotiations were now commenced for a general peace, under the auspices of Austria and Russia. The acknowledgment of the independence of the United States of North America laid the foundations for the work; and in 1783 treaties were signed between England on the one hand, and America, France, Spain, and Holland, with whom she had so valiantly contended, on the other.

Conformably to these treaties Great Britain acknowledged the thirteen United States as free, sovereign, and independent. She also ceded to France the Islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, St. Lucie and Tobago in the West Indies; Senegal and Gorée in Africa; and Pondicherry, with other districts in the East Indies, were in part restored, and in part ceded to France. Spain obtained, as the price of her exertions, the Island of Minorca and the two Floridas. Holland recovered Trincomalee and other possessions in the East Indies; but ceded Negapatam to Great Britain, and acknowledged the honour of the British flag. On her part Great Britain obtained many islands previously in the power of the French, and the right of the navigation of the Mississippi equally with the Americans, from its source to the ocean. No notice was taken of the armed neutrality, which no British minister

could have ventured to admit. England had no cause to regret the detachment of the thirteen provinces; for freedom of commercial relations, advantageous to both countries, superseded the right of sovereignty, which, though oppressive to America, was by no means advantageous to the mother country. The American colonies had yielded hardly as much as their maintenance cost.

Peace had scarcely been agreed upon when new changes took place in the British ministry. From the first the Earl of Shelburne had had to contend with a strong opposition; but the rock on which his cabinet split was the peace thus concluded. Its conditions were made the pretext of an attack, which was followed by the most complete triumph, and Parliament petitioned the king to choose other ministers. The Duke of Portland now succeeded Shelburne, while North, Fox, and their adherents shared the other places. But their term of power was brief, and at the close of the year 1783 the king appointed a new ministry, at the head of which was William Pitt, the young son of the great Earl of Chatham, who proved to be as able a statesman as his father.

During the war with America (in 1780) an alarming riot had occurred in London. It had been determined to remove some of the restrictive laws which oppressed the Roman Catholics; and some zealous Protestants, taking alarm at this, formed an association for the purpose of resisting concessions which they deemed dangerous to the welfare of the state. At the head of this association was Lord George Gordon, a member of the House of Commons, and a man of the most eccentric character. Those who first attended the meetings of the association were by no means likely to break the peace; but they soon found themselves associated with men careless as to religious truth, and desirous only of using the society as a political instrument, as well as with others actuated by fierce unscriptural fanaticism. Under these circumstances those by whom the association was founded withdrew their support and countenance from it; probably hoping that by so doing they should break it up. But this was not the case: thieves and ruffians from all parts of London attended the meeting, and subsequently broke open the prisons, in order to liberate their imprisoned associates, set fire to various buildings, and committed a series of the most dreadful and desperate crimes. The mob became infuriated by the drink they obtained from the cellars of the houses which they plundered, and numbers fell victims to intemperance. Robbery was the order of the day. The cry of the mob was "No Popery!" but their aim was plunder. The military were at length called out, and after several encounters, in which numbers of the insurgents were shot, the riot was quelled. Many were apprehended, and were visited with the penalties of the law. Out of sixty who were found

guilty, twenty were executed, and the rest transported. Lord George Gordon was tried for high-treason, but acquitted; for, though a guilty man, he was not brought within the limits defined by law as constituting that crime. It was evident, indeed, that he was a madman; and he afterwards confirmed the idea of his insanity by professing himself a Jew and assuming a sort of Hebrew garb. When this riot was quelled the metropolis resembled in many places a city stormed and sacked: all business was at an end; the public buildings were occupied by troops; and the streets were silent and empty, except where firemen were labouring to extinguish a smouldering conflagration.

PART II.

Early in 1784 the king dissolved the Parliament; and the result of the general election was highly favourable to the popularity of Mr. Pitt, who, upon the opening of the new Parliament, carried a bill for the regulation of the East India Company: which was made subject to a board of control, consisting of five commissioners appointed by the king. At this time the company found a formidable enemy in the person of Tippoo Saib, who defeated the British army under General Mathews, and gained many other advantages; a treaty, however, was at length agreed upon between Tippoo Saib and the company, in virtue of which both parties were maintained in the possession of their conquests.

The year 1785 was a period of great political contention. Mr. Pitt presented to the House of Commons a series of resolutions tending to settle the commerce of England and Ireland on a mutual and equitable footing: but they met with great opposition in both Houses; and though the bills were passed, they were so altered and mutilated, that they retained hardly anything of their original form. On being sent over to Ireland they met with great opposition, and were thrown out in the Irish Parliament with contempt; both countries considered them as destructive to their own interests. In the next session Mr. Pitt brought in a bill to form a sinking-fund of 1,000,000*l.* annually, to be vested in commissioners, and to be applied, to the reduction of the National Debt; and this passed both Houses and received the royal assent. About the same time a treaty of commerce and navigation was signed at the court of Versailles between France and Great Britain; and by this an intercourse was established between the two countries on the basis of reciprocal advantages. Duties were lowered, and privileges and rights granted to the manufacturing and trading subjects of each kingdom which had hitherto never been known between them. This was an enlightened measure; but events soon occurred which

set aside all the advantages that would otherwise have arisen from it.

During the year 1787 an attempt was made upon the life of the king by a woman named Nicholson. While presenting a petition with one hand she aimed a desperate blow at his Majesty with a knife which she held in the other; but his condescending manners in this instance were the means of saving his life; for, as the woman presented the petition, he bowed to her, and the blow in consequence fell short of his person. As his servants rushed to secure her his Majesty humanely exclaimed: "Do not hurt her; she is probably insane;" which turned out to be the fact; and she was confined in Bedlam for life, the king benevolently giving orders for her being treated with every kindness and indulgence consistent with her safe custody.

In 1788 the king was seized with a violent disorder, and continued ill a long time, with very little hopes of his recovery. His complaint was at first a bilious fever, but it resulted in depriving him of reason; and as it was thought that he would never be again capable of holding the reins of government, long deliberations took place in Parliament concerning the formation of a regency. All parties agreed in the propriety of appointing the Prince of Wales regent; but they were divided as to the extent and nature of the powers with which, as such, he ought to be entrusted. Party feelings ran high upon this subject; and, before the disputes were ended, the king happily recovered at once his bodily and mental health. This event gave the most lively joy to all his subjects, and when in the spring of 1789 his Majesty went to St. Paul's Cathedral publicly to return thanks to the One only giver of health and intellect, he was attended by crowds of his affectionate people, who greeted him with the most enthusiastic acclamations. The king entered the cathedral amidst the peal of organs and the voices of 5000 children of the City charity-schools, who were placed between the pillars on both sides to sing the hundredth psalm. His Majesty was most deeply affected, and observed to those near him with great emotion, "I now feel that I have been ill." For some years after this event nothing occurred in England that demands historical notice; and the king, who was eminently fitted for domestic happiness, as well as by his strictly moral habits as by the great love he bore to his family, took but little part in public business, his physicians recommending him to indulge as much as possible in retirement and leisure.

In aiding the Americans the King of France had struck a blow at the stability of his own throne; a revolutionary spirit had previously displayed itself in France, and the rebellion in America gave an impetus to it which no measures could stem. Year after

year the disaffection became stronger and stronger; and at length, in June, 1789, the storm which had long been gathering burst over the head of the devoted monarch. On the 20th of that month the French king was divested of all his absolute authority, and his power reduced within narrower limits than that of any other monarch in Europe. The Bastile, that den of slavery and cruelty, was so effectually demolished by the populace, as not to leave one stone upon another; a National Assembly was chosen by the people, who took from the king the power of making war and peace, and abolished all peerages, it being their declared opinion that no distinctions should be known but such as arose from virtue, genius, and merit. But these changes proved to be only the beginnings of the revolution. In July, 1790, the French monarch made a solemn surrender of the power hitherto lodged in his hands, and from that time became the servant of the people. In the Field of Mars he took a solemn oath to abide by the new constitution as prescribed by a decree of the National Assembly; but this oath was only taken under compulsion; and Louis soon afterwards endeavoured to escape to his German dominions, but was stopped on the borders of Flanders, brought back to Paris, and closely guarded in one of the royal palaces. In the meantime the National Assembly drew up a new code of laws, and brought them to the king, who signed them; and this allayed for a period the violent irritation that prevailed throughout the kingdom; but the storm was only hushed for awhile, again to break forth in greater fury. In August, 1792, there was a dreadful engagement at the Tuileries between the Swiss guards and the people; and the former were vanquished and massacred, while the king and the royal family were compelled to take refuge in the National Assembly. This was followed in September by a terrible insurrection in Paris, in which the prisons were forced open and all the state prisoners and priests confined there massacred. Louis was charged by the members of the French convention with being the author of these dreadful scenes; and, having declared the abolition of royalty and the formation of a republic, they resolved to bring the king to trial before them. This trial took place, and the tribunal, which absurdly exercised at once the incompatible characters of accusers, prosecutors, and judges, condemned the unfortunate monarch to death, and he was beheaded on the 21st of January, 1793. Paris now became like a den of wild beasts; and exhibited a scene of horrors unparalleled in the history of civilised nations. Executions daily and hourly took place; not only of individuals, but of whole families: if they were merely suspected of disaffection to the ruling powers, they were mercilessly destroyed. All power was in the hands of Robespierre; a man

who had arisen from obscurity, and was known only for his crimes. To be rich or noble was under his rule a crime sure to be visited with death; and among the illustrious victims of his cruelty was the helpless and unoffending queen Marie Antoinette, who perished, like her royal husband, by the guillotine. The surrounding nations stood aghast at the crimes committed in Paris, and injudiciously interfered in behalf of the royal family by menaces to the French nation, which only hastened their fate; and at length hostilities commenced, and kindled the flames of a great continental war, in which England was fated to take a conspicuous part.

It was on the 1st of February, 1793, that the French declared war against England and Holland, and in the course of the summer Valenciennes surrendered to the Duke of York, and Toulon to Lord Hood. The latter place, however, was reconquered by the French; but before leaving it the English set fire to the French vessels in the harbour, together with the dockyard and the arsenal. Napoleon Buonaparte, then a plain artillery officer, took a distinguished part in the siege and reconquest of this city.

In 1794 Lord Howe defeated the great French fleet, took six sail of the line, and sunk three, but by land the English were this year unsuccessful. The Duke of York was defeated in several battles, both in France and Holland, and was compelled to retreat into Germany; Holland was conquered and made a dependant state on France, — "a daughter republic leagued with a powerful mother." During this year Robespierre and his party were overthrown, and, with twenty other Terrorists, were guillotined. The party who succeeded to power after the fall of Robespierre, if not much more conspicuous than their predecessors for public virtue, had at least more wisdom; and began seriously to consider how the troubles of France might best be composed and something like a settled government constructed.

While the British arms were employed against republican France there were attempts made to set up a republic in England. Men, unworthy of the liberty and prosperity they enjoyed under the British constitution, and deeply enamoured of those atrocious principles which had disturbed Europe and deluged France with blood, instituted clubs, under the specious title of Corresponding Societies But ministers were on the alert. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, and numerous individuals were arrested and brought to trial; but, though morally guilty, they were not legally so, and were consequently acquitted. Two men in Scotland, however, who were tried by the severer laws of that country, were sentenced to transportation.

In 1795 the French Directory, which was established after the fall of Robespierre and his associates, made overtures for peace

with England; but, though it had now become more moderate in its measures, it was not the less obstinate, and the war was continued. In this year England sent out a powerful fleet to aid the emigrants who were endeavouring to stem the torrent of revolution in France; but all their efforts proved fruitless; hundreds were taken and shot, and 2000 took refuge on board the English ships.

During this year the Prince of Wales was married to his cousin the Princess Caroline of Brunswick; a marriage which proved only a source of misery to the princess. In the same year Warren Hastings, formerly governor-general of India, was, after a trial that had lasted seven years, finally acquitted. He had been impeached by the Commons for mal-administration in his government, session after session he had been attacked by the greatest orators of the time, and his trial had for years formed the most absorbing topic of public interest; but its long duration seemed partly to have exhausted both sympathy and hostility, and his ultimate acquittal excited little notice.

The defection of Holland, and its alliance with France, proved of great consequence to England. In 1795 Admiral Elphinstone took the Cape of Good Hope by capitulation. In the East Indies the English conquered Trincomalee, with all the Dutch territory of Ceylon, as well as the Moluccas and Malacca; and in 1796 they made themselves masters also of Demerara, in the West Indies. During this year Lord Malmesbury was sent to negotiate a peace with France; but failed, and was compelled to leave Paris in twenty-four hours. France this year formed an alliance which gave a new turn to the war. Admiral Cordova, with twenty-seven ships of the line, ten frigates, and seventy merchantmen, in 1797 sailed out of Carthagena, with the intention of joining the French fleet at Brest; but he was met by Admiral Jervis, who, with only fifteen ships of the line, defeated him off St. Vincent, and frustrated his design. The Spanish fleet then fled to Cadiz, where Nelson blockaded it; and in the same year a great Dutch fleet under Admiral Winter was almost annihilated by Admiral Duncan. But, notwithstanding so much success and glory, the war became daily more burdensome to England, and the most brilliant superiority did not secure her from particular reverses and great dangers. In consequence of the victories gained by Napoleon in Italy, Corsica was wrested from England, and that island united with the French republic, and the various evils occasioned to England by the war induced ministers again to negotiate for peace; but they met with no better success than before.

On the 12th of May an alarming mutiny broke out on board the fleet at Sheerness. The mutineers blocked up the entrance of

the Thames, hoisted bloody flags, and compelled all the ships of war in the Medway and at the Nore to join the revolt. The mutiny also spread into the squadron of Admiral Duncan, most of whose ships left him and joined the mutineers at the Nore: but happily it was soon quelled. Several of the ringleaders were taken and executed, and the rest then returned to their duty.

In 1798 a rebellion broke out in Ireland, which was fomented by the French, who sent supplies both of men and money; but the design was betrayed by spies to the English government, and entirely failed, having no other result than that of causing much misery to the people. In the meantime the French arms under Napoleon were almost everywhere victorious. His armies overran Switzerland and Italy and entered Rome, where they planted the tree of liberty before the capitol.

After this Napoleon assembled an army on the coasts of the Channel and threatened an invasion of England; but he abandoned this intention, which perhaps he never seriously entertained, and set sail for Egypt, taking with him the greater part of a large army, ostensibly collected at Toulon for the invasion of England. Malta, Alexandria, and Cairo fell into his hands: and the Mameluke chiefs, who endeavoured to arrest his progress, were every one defeated. But while at Cairo, and in the midst of the festivities of victory, Napoleon received the terrible news of the destruction of his fleet. It had been left at anchor in the roads of Aboukir, and Admiral Nelson, who had been long in search of it, discovered it there, and attacked it without delay. The French fought valiantly, but their valour was vain. Only two ships of the line and two frigates escaped; the rest were either captured or destroyed. More than 5000 French were slain, and about 4000 taken prisoners. This was the most glorious and at the same time most important victory since the beginning of the war; and Europe heard the news with transports of delight, for France by this time had become the abhorrence and terror of the Continent. A second coalition was soon formed among European monarchs; a coalition more formidable than the first, as it was joined by the two great powers of Austria and Russia.

In 1799 the question of the union of Great Britain and Ireland was brought forward in both the Irish Houses of Parliament. It was carried after long discussion, and the act came into operation on the 1st of January, 1801. The coalition this year received a severe blow in Holland. An English-Russian army made a descent at Helder in North Holland, in the hope of bringing the Batavian republic again under the dominion of the Stadtholder; but delay, occasioned by negligence and contrary winds, bad preparations, and other causes, frustrated this enterprise.

The English fleet captured several Dutch vessels; but the land army was soon overpowered by the Generals Brune and Daendels. The Russian general Hermann was made prisoner of war, with some thousand men, at Bergen; and the Duke of York finally capitulated, and obtained permission to return with the remnant of his army, upon the condition of setting 3000 French prisoners in England at liberty. The Emperor Paul of Russia had already suffered reverses in Switzerland; and, exasperated with the issue of this enterprise, he separated from the coalition: an event which led to a rupture between England and Russia. In 1800 the Russian ambassador left this country under the passport granted for a courier; and an embargo was soon after laid on English ships at Cronstadt. But, though Russia had withdrawn from the coalition, Great Britain proudly continued the war, and France, on the other hand, though victorious, appeared desirous of peace. Napoleon wrote with his own hand to the British monarch; but the British ministry felt no confidence in his government, and rejected his proposals. The consequence of this attempt at peace, indeed, was confirmed exasperation, and Napoleon made an adroit use of it for reviving martial courage and enthusiasm. The whole nation of France assumed a warlike attitude, and every man capable of bearing arms was ready to go out to battle.

The war continued. In the years 1800 and 1801 England dealt two great blows at her enemy in the reconquest of Malta and Egypt. Malta was captured after a blockade of two years. In Egypt, after the departure of Napoleon, Kleber had taken command of the army, and had continued the war with success. But he fell by the hand of a Turkish assassin; and on Menou taking the command disunion arose in the army. At this time England had fitted out a powerful enterprise for the final suppression of this formidable colony of the French. Admiral Keith commanded the fleet: General Abercrombie the army. The descent was made at Aboukir; and the French were beaten here, and subsequently at Ramanieh. Abercrombie fell in the first battle; and then the command devolved on General Hutchinson. The English were again victorious at Alexandria; Menou capitulated, and the ruins of the French army were transported free to France upon English vessels.

But, while the English were thus victorious in Egypt, Napoleon was pursuing a successful career in Europe. So triumphant were his arms, that Austria, one of the sternest enemies of France, was compelled to sign a treaty of peace; and this peace with the principal enemy of the republic on the Continent was soon followed by reconciliation with the other hostile powers, Russia, Naples, and

Portugal. Napoleon, now first consul, concluded peace likewise with the Porte and with the powers of Barbary, and especially with Algiers. But reconciliation with England was more difficult, though several causes eventually combined to bring about even that consummation.

At this time a violent fermentation, which assumed more and more a dangerous character, prevailed in the interior of England. Combustible matter of various kinds was accumulated; French principles had taken deep root, and were spreading on every hand; circumstances connected with the war having, apart from the contagion of evil example, contributed to the state of things. The enormous sums swallowed up by the war against France, and the payment of heavy subsidies to most of the states of Europe, made higher taxes and an unexampled increase of the National Debt necessary. Within the first six years of the war it had increased to about 200,000,000*l.*; but in 1801 it amounted to 500,000,000*l.*: this of course necessitated a greatly increased taxation. Many branches of industry were also interrupted or destroyed by the chances of war, or by the changes of policy in foreign countries; then, again, the poor-rates rose to a fearful height, while the distress of the indigent was not appeased. As a compensation for these and other evils, England had merely her triumphs by sea and the increasing commercial greatness which was built upon them: but even this dominion of the sea threatened danger by the resistance it excited among the neutrals. Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and Prussia engaged in a project of another armed neutrality, similar to that of 1780; and to which they were incited chiefly by a claim set up by England to search even commercial vessels sailing under convoy. But the British trident rose in its might against this armed neutrality. Fifty-four vessels, under Admirals Parker and Nelson, broke through the Sound, and in March, 1801, appeared before Copenhagen. The Danes fought valiantly; but they were conquered, and Denmark was compelled to consent to an armistice upon the condition that during the truce the armed neutrality should be suspended. The English now sailed into the Baltic Sea, to attack the Swedish-Russian fleet; but an event took place which stopped its operations. The Russian emperor Paul lost his life by assassination in consequence of the hatred which he had incurred by his despotism; and his son and successor Alexander concluded a convention with England, in which he acknowledged the British claims to the right of search, and renounced his claim to the possession of Malta, which had been one of the chief causes of complaint with his predecessor against Great Britain. The peace of the north was therefore re-established.

Influenced by the causes above mentioned, the British govern-

ment now finally resolved to conclude a peace with France; but before this resolve was taken a change took place in the administration. The stern character of Pitt did not even yield to necessity, but he resigned; and Addington was made prime-minister: whereupon Lord Hawkesbury, the new secretary of state for foreign affairs, declared the willingness of the king to make peace. Preliminaries were signed in London some months before, but the definitive peace was not concluded till in March, 1802: it was agreed upon in a congress assembled at Amiens; England signing it on the one side, and France, Spain, and Holland on the other. By this treaty England restored all her conquests, with the exception of Ceylon and Trinidad; and agreed that the Cape of Good Hope should be open equally to the vessels of the contracting powers. Egypt was to be restored to the Porte; and Malta was again assigned to the knights of the order of St. John. The peace was proclaimed in London on the 29th of April, with the accustomed ceremony and pomp, and at night there was a general illumination in honour of the event.

This peace was, however, but of short duration. On neither side were the stipulations of the treaty justly observed; but on the part of Napoleon they were most flagrantly violated. This brought on a new rupture, and preparations were made for war. The restoration of Malta to the Knights of St. John had not taken place; and when France demanded it, a counter-demand was made for France to adhere to the stipulations into which she had entered before Malta was given up. This led to mutual recriminations, and finally kindled a new war; and even before the commencement of hostilities Napoleon committed an act which rendered all thoughts of a lasting peace impossible. Contrary to the law of nations, he ordered the immediate arrest of all the English on the soil of France who were sojourning there or travelling under the protection of the law of hospitality and peace. Had no other causes of difference existed, this would have inevitably relit the flames of war between the two nations; but it was thought that Napoleon was never desirous of reconciliation with England, and that while peace was on his lips war was in his heart.

The first martial deed was the invasion by the French forces of Hanover; a vulnerable point in which Napoleon could wound the honour of England. Hanover was too weak for resistance; and a convention was concluded, according to which the Hanoverian army retired beyond the Elbe into the Duchy of Lauenburg, upon the condition of not serving against France. After this conquest, in 1804, Napoleon reached the highest pinnacle of his fame and power, and was created Emperor of the French; that proud nation again submitting to the rule of one man, and that one man of

humble birth. With the exception of England, Russia, Sweden, and the Porte, every foreign prince, and even the Emperor of Austria, made haste to acknowledge the imperial dignity of Napoleon.

But his unbounded ambition finally proved his ruin. His frequent violation of treaties, and his continual augmentation of empire, by incorporating the surrounding smaller nations with France, promoted the formation of a third coalition against him by England, Sweden, Russia, and soon afterwards Austria. The treaties by which this coalition was formed were concluded early in the year 1805. The return of Pitt to office contributed mainly to this result; and the chief power upon which he calculated was Russia. England engaged to pay 1,125,000*l.* for every 100,000 of regular troops which the allies could raise. It was expected that 500,000 soldiers could be assembled; and England was rich enough to pay them all; British gold was, in fact, the support of the war. Great calculations were also made upon the accession of Austria; and it was expected that Prussia might be induced also to take part in the great struggle; but that country, overawed by the French armies in its vicinity, remained neutral.

Napoleon first turned his arms against Austria; and a sanguinary battle was fought at Austerlitz between the French and a combined force of Austrians and Russians, in which his usual success attended him. He was completely victorious; and the Austrian emperor, threatened in his capital, was compelled to consent to a most degrading treaty of peace. England carried on the struggle this time only with her money and her ships. A great battle was this year fought by a British fleet, in which Nelson, the greatest of modern naval heroes, was the commander. He met with a combined French and Spanish fleet, under Admiral Villeneuve, off Trafalgar, and immediately prepared for action, giving this emphatic signal to his officers and men as the battle commenced: "ENGLAND EXPECTS EVERY MAN TO DO HIS DUTY:" and bravely did his officers and men respond to this signal. A complete victory was gained: out of eighteen sail of the line the French preserved only nine; and the Spaniards out of fifteen only six. The marine force of Napoleon might be said to be annihilated; but the victory was dearly purchased: for in the midst of the action Nelson was mortally wounded, and almost as soon as the last of the enemy's ships had struck her colours he expired. His last words were, "Thank God, I have done my duty." His death was deeply deplored by the nation; and all honours were paid to his remains, which were deposited under the noble dome of St. Paul's: "a fitting and a glorious resting-place."

Another loss was sustained at this critical juncture by England in 1806; for on the 23rd of January Pitt expired, in the forty-

seventh year of his age. He was buried in Westminster Abbey. After his death there was a complete change in the administration: Lord Grenville was made first lord of the Treasury, and with him were associated Fox, Sidmouth, Howick, and others of their party. So complete a ministerial change had not been made for years; and, from the intellectual endowments of the new men, the ministry obtained the denomination of "All the talents." But the power of this administration was not of long duration; for in about eight months Fox followed his great rival Pitt to the tomb, and a new ministry was composed, of which Spencer Perceval was the acknowledged premier. Attempts had been made by "All the talents" to make peace with Napoleon; but they proved abortive: the French emperor amused them with negotiations; but his successes had been so great by land that he had no thoughts of submitting to any terms that could be proposed. Our military and naval operations this year were extended to the south of Italy and Sicily, Portugal, the East and West Indies, and South America; but no decisive blow was struck at the gigantic power of France. On the other hand, Napoleon inflicted a terrible one on Prussia. In this year that country awoke from its fatal blindness, and resolved on war, but it was too late; the Prussians were defeated in a bloody battle at Jena, and all the country from the Rhine to the other side of the Oder fell into the hands of the victor. The French troops occupied Brunswick, Hesse-Cassel, the Hanseatic cities, and finally Mecklenburgh and Oldenburgh: all North Germany groaned under the scourge of the victor, and South Germany afforded him troops and gold.

Intoxicated by the victory of Jena, Napoleon issued from Berlin an arrogant decree, whereby he declared the British Islands in a state of blockade; and by this decree all powers that would not be considered the enemies of France had to take part in a war waged upon the British flag and British commerce. All commerce and all correspondence with England were forbidden; all vessels that acted contrary to this ordinance, with all English goods and merchandise, were declared lawful prize; and the ports of France and its allied states were closed against all vessels coming from England or the British colonies. In 1807 England issued, in retaliation, two counter-proclamations, by which, on her side, all commerce with the ports of France and its dependent states was interdicted: all the coasts of France and its allied countries declared to be in a state of blockade; and all vessels trading with them, as well as all merchandise or manufactures of such countries, pronounced lawful prize. Enraged at this retaliation, Napoleon issued a new decree from Milan, in which every vessel that fulfilled the conditions demanded by England was declared English property, and subject to

the prize law. Nor did his rage stop here: by two subsequent decrees all colonial merchandise was to be subjected to an impost of fifty per cent., and all English goods were to be burnt. All peaceable commerce in Europe was thus annihilated; but England, possessing the commerce of the rest of the world, suffered comparatively little. Not so other nations, however; they were reduced to misery by this iniquitous continental system. Denmark suffered bitterly for putting it in force; for England sent a large fleet against Copenhagen, which bombarded it, and all the Danish ships of war and their stores fell into the hands of the British. This action, however, was very generally blamed, and excited a hostile feeling against England in other nations.

In 1807 two great battles were fought between the French and Russians, in which the former were victorious. This led to a peace between France and Russia; and a treaty was entered into between Napoleon and Alexander, in which they agreed to divide the world between them. Prussia, and even Austria, also entered into a treaty of alliance with France: and Russia, after the capture of Copenhagen, declared war against England. One of the first results of these treaties was the conquest of Spain by Napoleon. Soon after the peace of Tilsit he cast his insatiable desires upon that country, and made himself master of it by a revolting act of violence. But this hazardous enterprise became the first cause of his overthrow; for the whole nation rose against him, and commenced a Guerrilla warfare, which occupied his attention and thinned his troops for six years; and although he was successful in particular instances, Spain remained in spirit unconquered, and finally came off victorious.

In their resistance to Napoleon, the "world-tyrant," the Spaniards were nobly assisted by England. In 1808 Sir Arthur Wellesley was sent out with 10,000 men; and having communicated at Corunna with the Spanish leader, he proceeded to Portugal, which Napoleon had sent his troops to invade, after overthrowing the throne of Spain. That country was unable to resist the invaders, and the king and his family left Europe and embarked under English escort for Brazil. The object of Sir Arthur Wellesley was to drive the French from Portugal, through Spain, and back into France; and he landed at Mondego Bay, and proceeded to Vimiera, where a decisive battle was fought, in which the French were defeated. The result of this battle was the complete deliverance of Portugal from the power of France. Later in the year Sir John Moore landed at Corunna, with a force of 12,000 men, to the direct assistance of the Spaniards, and another great victory was obtained over the French; but it was purchased by the loss of the brave British commander. In this year also a Russian fleet,

under Admiral Siniavin, surrendered to the British; and from this time the English troops had a firm foundation for their campaigns in the Peninsula. The battle of Corunna was fought in January, 1809. The French had a few days before attacked Saragossa, and after a desperate resistance this city, filled with ruins and corpses, fell into their hands. Still the English nobly sustained the cause of the Spaniards; and Sir Arthur Wellesley, acting in union with Portuguese and Spanish troops, invaded Spain and Portugal, and gained a brilliant victory at Talavera in New Castile; and in memory of which achievement he was created "Viscount Wellington of Talavera."

This success, however, produced no important results. Napoleon had been directing his arms against Austria, and having prostrated that power, he again poured an overwhelming force into Spain; and in 1810 the British troops, pressed by the enemy, and not being effectively aided by the Spanish nation, retreated; and the French followed them into Portugal. The French were now once more established in Spain; but the spirit of the people remained unbroken, and Cadiz, which was invested, defied the proud invaders. Napoleon had placed his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain; and he now reorganised the civil and military administration of the kingdom, and suppressed all the orders of monks and mendicants throughout the whole extent of Spain, confiscating the property of the cloisters, and applying it to state objects.

In November, 1810, George III. was again afflicted with mental malady, to the sincere grief of his subjects. This awful visitation was attributed by his physicians to the shock he had sustained in the previous month by the death of his favourite daughter the Princess Amelia. He had been for some time afflicted with blindness; but when, on visiting the princess, a few days before her death, she put a ring on his finger, he knew its import,—that it was to be worn in memory of one whom he so dearly loved. The shock was too much for his nerves; reason gave way, and to the day of his death no glimmering of it returned. His favourite residence, Windsor Castle, was the place of his retirement, and there, for nearly ten long years, he remained in a state of blindness and insanity, tenderly watched by his queen and his children, and mourned by his affectionate people, who endearingly spoke of him as "The good old king."

PART III.

The Prince of Wales was appointed by Parliament to the regency; and though he had been averse to the king's ministers and their policy, he retained them in office, and thus gave offence to the party to whom he had hitherto been attached. A change in

the ministry, however, was soon after brought about by a tragical event; the chief minister, Perceval, in May, 1812, was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons by a Liverpool merchant named Bellingham, who falsely imagined that his victim had prevented him from obtaining a sum for which he had a claim upon government. After this Lord Liverpool was appointed to the chief place in the ministry; but Lord Castlereagh shared the power with him. The gigantic struggle against Napoleon, indeed, was continued, principally under the auspices of Castlereagh; and, as will be seen, Great Britain finally triumphed in it. At this time the French emperor had divorced his faithful wife Josephine, who had shared his fortunes and his triumphs, and had married the Archduchess Maria-Louisa, daughter of the Emperor of Austria, against whom he had so long, so inveterately, so unjustly, and yet so successfully, waged war; and in all things he seemed to have attained the pinnacle of human glory.

It was in the Peninsula that England chiefly combated the power of Napoleon. In the year 1811 the French arms still maintained their preponderance in Spain, in spite of some reverses effected by the exertions of the Spaniards. Yet, notwithstanding so much misfortune, the courage of the Spaniards remained unabated, the Guerrillas rose more boldly than ever; and various successes gave some consolation for victories gained by the French. During this time Cadiz sustained with firmness an obstinate siege; and though an attempt of the British to relieve the city failed, it did not surrender.

A more fortunate period for Spain commenced in 1812. Napoleon, Emperor of France, and Alexander, Emperor of Russia, had, as has been said, by the treaty of Tilsit, agreed to divide the world between them; and both had aggrandised themselves by virtue of that treaty, at the expense of surrounding, and even of far-distant nations; but there was in the treaty, nevertheless, the germ of a fatal quarrel between the spoilers of the world, which, sooner or later, could not fail to break out. They had apparently ratified their unholy compact at Erfurt, and the fate of the Continent seemed to depend upon these potentates. But where there is unbounded ambition there can be no good faith; and though Europe witnessed the union with disquietude, it was clear to men of penetration that it would not be lasting. And so it proved. Causes of contention soon arose between the two emperors; the principal being that of the Continental System, as it was called, for the maintenance of which Russia, having suffered by it, refused to continue her co-operation. This quarrel at length broke out into open hostility, and both parties at once declared war against each other. Napoleon assumed the offensive: at the head of a mass of 500,000

men he approached the Russian frontiers, and made his way as far as the city of the czars, Moscow. But here his triumphs ended: Moscow was set on fire by some Russians who had been left in the city, and the conqueror was compelled to commence a retrograde movement. His retreat was most disastrous; and the fiat of the Almighty seemed to have gone forth against him. Winter had approached. Famine, frost and snow, and the never-resting lances of the Cossacks, overtook his proud army, and but few of all that mighty host ever returned to their native country. It is said that 300,000 human bodies and 150,000 dead horses were burnt upon the Russian soil.

In the meantime Wellington had given a deadly blow to the power of the French in Spain. Marshal Marmont, who was advancing into Portugal, was defeated by him at Salamanca; and, in consequence of this battle, King Joseph left Madrid, and Wellington made his solemn entry into that city: but this triumph was short lived; the combined French armies marched again towards Madrid; Wellington having experienced great loss in fruitless storms upon the citadel of Burgos, retreated towards Portugal, and King Joseph re-entered the capital of Spain. The grand cause of Wellington's retreat was the ill support which he received from the Spanish Cortes; but that body, now convinced of their error, appointed him commander-in-chief of all the Spanish armies, and from this time things inclined to a more favourable decision. Great Britain redoubled her efforts, and the Cortes summoned up all the force of the Spaniards to combat with the enemy. In 1813 Wellington defeated the French in three great battles, at Vittoria, Pampeluna, and in the vicinity of the Pyrenees, and Spain was almost delivered from their power. King Joseph then fled from Madrid, and saw Spain no more.

The nations of Europe now combined to crush the great enemy of the peace of the world; and Prussia, Sweden, Austria, and the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine, all set their troops in motion against him. To meet these varied enemies, Napoleon assembled new and formidable legions: the bloody conscription was extended, and 800,000 men were raised for the slaughter. At first he was successful: near Luetzen he gained a great victory over the combined forces of Russia and Prussia; and this victory was followed by others at Bauzen, Wurschen, and Dresden. But after this last smile of fortune Napoleon soon experienced her decided and constant frown. Victories were gained over his generals by the Prussians under Blucher, on the Katzbach in Silesia; at Culm and Nullendorf in Bohemia; and at Dennewitz by the Crown-Prince of Sweden and Bulow. In consequence of these disasters Napoleon soon saw the three great armies of the allies approaching, and had to choose between battle and

retreat. He chose the former alternative. His troops were marched into the plains of Leipsic, and here was fought the immortal battle of nations, in which God gave the allies a decisive victory over their enemy. The battle lasted from the 14th to the 19th of October, and its results were final: 80,000 French lay dead on the field, while the allies lost about 50,000. The French now fled towards Erfurt, and in their retreat experienced many other severe losses. In his retreat Napoleon was opposed by the Bavarians, hitherto his friends: but he cut his way through their opposing forces, crossed the Rhine, and never set foot again in Germany. That country was finally and for ever delivered from his power: and after his retreat most of the fortresses of the Oder and the Elbe, and of other points occupied by the French, surrendered. The liberation of Germany was followed by that of Holland and Spain: the Prince of Orange and Ferdinand were restored to their thrones.

Thus, by a series of unexampled reverses, in the course of one eventful year, he who was lately the ruler of Europe found all his exertions needful for the defence of France. But for his mad ambition he might, nevertheless, have retained his throne; for he was offered France, with the Rhine for its boundary; but he refused to have his dominions thus limited. The allies now resolved upon the great decisive contest. Four hundred thousand warriors assembled on the Rhine and in Holland; the combined forces of Austria and Naples marched from Italy; and the legions of the Spaniards and Portuguese, united with the English, poured over the Pyrenees. New battalions of Germans, Austrians, Prussians, and Russians also pressed on in enormous masses in all directions, especially towards the eastern boundary of France. Napoleon prepared for the coming storm with his characteristic ardour and energy, and a new levy of 300,000 men was decreed by the senate.

It was on the 1st of January, 1814, that the allies entered France; and the campaign which followed was said to be "rich in prodigies of valour and military art." Pressed by his enemies, Napoleon never appeared greater than he did on the eve of his fall. Victories were obtained by him over the Prussians, Russians, Austrians, and Germans, at Brienne, Champ Aubert, Montmirial, Nangis, and Montereau. But, in spite of all his exertions and victories, his throne was destined to fall. His marshals had in the meantime experienced various defeats; the Austrians had conquered Burgundy, and finally, Lyons; and Wellington had driven Soult from the Pyrenees, and was directing his victorious march towards the interior of France. In order to divert his enemies, Napoleon took the bold resolution of throwing the war into the rear of the enemy, into the countries between the Rhine and the Moselle. But this

proved a false step; for the allies did not follow him, as he expected, but marched forwards to Paris. The defence of this city had been confided to Joseph Buonaparte; but he was not prepared to withstand the attack of the allies. At the head of 200,000 men the monarchs and generals entered Paris in triumph, and the rule of Napoleon was at an end. The Bourbons were restored to the throne of France, and he was compelled to sign an unconditional act of abdication. Yet he was to retain the title of emperor and to have the Island of Elba as a sovereign principality, and an annual revenue of 2,000,000 of francs from the French treasury. Soon after this arrangement he departed for that island.

A general peace was now concluded at Paris. By the instruments of peace France retained the old boundary of 1792, with even some additional territory. She also recovered her lost colonies, with the exception of the islands of Tobago, St. Lucie, and the Isle of France, which were ceded to England, and St. Domingo, which was given up to Spain. France was likewise exempted from all oppressive requisitions, the monarchs wishing to re-establish the dominion of the Bourbons on a firm basis. Concerning the conquests wrested from France, it was decided that Holland, with an augmentation of territory, should fall to the House of Orange; that Switzerland should be independent; that Germany should form a confederation of independent states; that Italy, with the exception of a part which returned under the dominion of Austria, should also consist of independent states; and that Malta should remain in the possession of England. A congress, consisting of plenipotentiaries of all the powers which had taken part in the war, was to assemble within two months at Vienna, to settle definitively all these new relations.

When the allied sovereigns imagined that they had restored the peace of Europe, the Emperor of Russia, the King of Prussia, with a numerous company of counts, barons, dukes, princes, marshals, and generals, visited England. Among these were the brave old General Blucher, and Platoff, the Hettman of the Cossacks, who had been two of the most formidable antagonists of Napoleon. The reception of all these by the Prince Regent and the people was both honourable and flattering. Such continuous shows, spectacles, and feasts were given as London never before had witnessed. Soon after, the Duke of Wellington returned to England, and received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament for his eminent services to his Majesty and the public; and the sum of 500,000*l.* was voted to him, to be laid out in the purchase of an estate, as a lasting token of the national gratitude.

The work of the Duke of Wellington, however, was not yet done: peace had returned to bless the world; but it was not yet firmly established, and while congress was sitting for this purpose an

event occurred which called the nations of Europe again into the field of battle. This was the escape of Napoleon from the Island of Elba, and his sudden restoration to the throne of France.

From the first moment of his arrival in Elba he had commenced a secret and active correspondence with his friends, both in Italy and France, with a view of subverting the throne of the Bourbons. This correspondence became more active when his friends and agents reported to him the return of the French prisoners of war from Russia, Poland, Saxony, England, Prussia, Spain, and other countries; for he knew that the temper of these veterans was unchanged, and their devotion to glory and to their emperor as great as ever. Many of them had enlisted indeed into the armies of Louis XVIII.; but they carried the tricoloured cockade in their knapsacks, ready to put it on their caps if Napoleon should ever return. Aware of this, and of other circumstances favourable to his enterprise, on the 26th of February, 1815, Napoleon embarked with a small body of men; and on the 1st of March he landed at Cannes, a short distance from Frejus. He met with little support in Provence; but on penetrating into Dauphiny, "the cradle of the Revolution," the people began to flock round his standard; and from this time his onward march to Paris was one of triumph. There were none to oppose him; the very troops sent against him universally hailed him as their emperor. All along the road he was joined by soldiers in detachments, battalions, and divisions, who tore the white cockade from their caps and mounted the tricolour. On hearing of their faithlessness Louis fled from the Tuileries; and Napoleon entered Paris in the midst of loud shouts of "*Vive l'empereur!*" Once more he seated himself on the throne of the Bourbons, and all things were restored to the state under which they had been in the days of his former empire.

On receiving the news of Napoleon's landing in France the monarchs assembled in congress at Vienna, and pronounced a terrible proscription against him: they declared his lawful claim, even to existence, forfeited by his departure from Elba; his person excluded from general, human, and civil rights; and, as an enemy of the world, they delivered him over to public justice. This declaration was published in the name of the eight powers that had signed the peace of Paris, and they immediately prepared for war on a most gigantic scale: the forces raised against him were estimated at 1,365,000 soldiers. The contest which was now resumed was brief, but bloody. At the head of his phalanxes Napoleon defeated the Prussians in a murderous battle at Ligny, and marched upon Brussels; but here his triumph ended, for the Duke of Wellington was then at Brussels, and hearing of the enemy's approach, he marched out of that city with his troops,

and took up his position on the now far-famed field of Waterloo, where he awaited the attack.

It was on the morning of the 18th of June, on the Sabbath, a day sacred to peace, that the final struggle commenced. Napoleon was eager to measure his strength with that of Wellington, whom he had often longed to meet in the field; and hoping to crush him before the Prussians under Blucher could come to his assistance, led out his forces to battle. The strife was fearful. Throughout the whole day the British were charged in squadrons and masses; but in vain,—at every charge the French troops returned, crippled and dismayed. Towards the evening every part of the French army except the guards, on whom Napoleon placed his greatest reliance, had been engaged, repulsed, and frightfully thinned. At length the guards were brought forward to the scene of action. They advanced in two massy columns, and moved resolutely on, under a destructive fire from the British position; but their attack proved fruitless. When within fifty yards from the British line they attempted to deploy; but the close fire upon them was too terrible: their flanks were enveloped by some of the British guards; they got mixed together in a confused mass, thrown into irretrievable confusion, and slaughtered like sheep. There was no more fighting: the grand army of Napoleon took refuge in flight, followed by their victorious enemies. As the broken imperial guard reeled away from the British position, and as Napoleon, in the agony of despair, exclaimed, "They are mixed! they are mixed!" and was preparing to put spurs to his horse, Blucher, who, notwithstanding his recent defeat at Ligny, hastened to the decisive contest with his ordinary courage, came in sight with his Prussians; and when he reached the fatigued victors the task of pursuit was assigned to him. He would follow the fugitives, he said, with his last horse and his last man; and he sternly fulfilled his threat. In the pursuit the Prussians took a terrible revenge on the French for the defeats they had sustained: they were cut down on the road in heaps like cattle, and the whole army was either destroyed or dispersed. In the battle and the retreat the French lost 30,000 men in killed and wounded; the British and Hanoverians about 14,000. Many officers were killed; and among them, on the side of the British, were General Picton and Sir William Ponsonby, two of the most valiant of the British generals.

The war was now finished. Blucher soon appeared in sight of Paris, and after a few days a capitulation was signed, in virtue of which the French army promised to evacuate Paris within three days, and to retire behind the Loire within eight days. On the 7th of July Blucher and Wellington entered the proud capital; and on the following day Louis XVIII. reappeared in his conquered

residence. The reign of Napoleon had previously ended: he had first fled to Paris; but, menaced by the victors, the chambers compelled him to sign his abdication. On the day when Louis re-entered Paris Napoleon embarked at Rochefort; but the English cruisers made it impossible for him to put out to sea, and in this embarrassment he surrendered to Captain Maitland of the Bellerophon. He declared that he surrendered himself to the protection of the English laws, and that he would henceforth live in England as a private man; but there was no longer any law or right for the proscribed. Taught by sad experience that no dependence could be placed on him,—that his mad ambition endangered the peace of Europe,—the allies announced to him that he would be conveyed to St. Helena in the South Atlantic Ocean, as their common prisoner, yet under the particular supervision of England. This was done, and on the 18th of October the man who had been for nineteen years the terror of the world landed on that solitary and desolate island, which proved to be his destined grave.

By the captivity of Napoleon the object of the war was attained. Not so much as a treaty of peace was necessary, since he against whom alone war was waged was overthrown. The allies, however, thought that they were obliged to require some sacrifices of France; partly to indemnify them for the expenses of the war, and partly to obviate similar dangers for the future. The French plenipotentiaries and those of the allied powers, therefore, concluded a treaty, called, "The Second Peace of Paris." By this treaty the boundaries of France in 1790, not 1792, as in the first peace of Paris, were fixed on for the future, and the French had to cede a considerable portion of newly acquired territory to Holland, Sardinia, and Switzerland. France next engaged to pay the sum of 700,000,000 francs, as indemnity to the allied powers; and it was also agreed that an allied army of 150,000 men should occupy France for five years, and that 50,000,000 francs should be paid annually for the maintenance of these troops. Finally, it was settled that the dominion of the Bourbons should be maintained by foreign powers; but at the same time it was made imperative upon them to respect the charter. Besides this general treaty, the different powers concluded among themselves numerous partial treaties; and by one of these the treasures of art plundered by the French in the different periods of the revolutionary war were ordered to be restored to their rightful possessors. This completed the humiliation of France; for these things were very dear to the French people, as they served to remind them of the victories they had gained; and the parting with them was felt as a greater national dishonour than even the capture of the city of Paris by the allies or the occupation of France by the allied troops. Thus

ended the French Revolution; and in order that this abyss might never open again, the monarchs of Russia, Austria, and Prussia concluded personally, and without the interference or even the signatures of their ministers, the agreement called the Holy Alliance. This compact had for its professed object the government of the world on the precepts of justice, and of Christian love and peace; but it proved to be little better than a solemn mockery, for subsequent events have shown that in practice the true spirit of this so-named Holy Alliance was really that of tyranny and oppression.

In the year 1816 two royal marriages took place. The Princess Charlotte, the amiable and gifted daughter of the Prince-Regent, was married to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg; and the Princess Mary, fourth daughter of his Majesty, to her cousin the Duke of Gloucester.

At this time there was great distress in England; arising chiefly from the long and expensive war in which the nation had been engaged; from a deficient harvest; and from a general stagnation in trade and commerce. Distress engendered discontent; and artful demagogues, taking advantage of it, worked upon the feelings of the distressed; and both in London and in the provinces there was much riotous and even treasonable conduct. Several desperate men, who were leaders of a tumultuous mob which assembled in Spafields, were apprehended and tried; but were acquitted. At Derby, however, the conduct of the mob was so unequivocally treasonable, that a jury found several individuals guilty; the most daring of whom were executed and the rest transported. On this occasion the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, and other violent measures adopted for the restoration of order and the authority of government.

During the war the piratical state of Barbary had infested the commerce of the Mediterranean and subjected Christians to the most dreadful slavery. An expedition was therefore now fitted out, under the command of Lord Exmouth, to put a stop to these proceedings; Algiers was bombarded by him, and the city and harbour were soon reduced to a shattered heap of ruins. By this event the Dey of Algiers was humbled: and he agreed to abolish Christian slavery; to deliver up all the slaves in his dominion; to return all the money received for the redemption of slaves in the present year; and to make reparation and a public apology to the British consul for the indignities to which he had been subjected. The Deys of Tunis and Tripoli also agreed to abolish Christian slavery in their states; and the ships traversing the Mediterranean were thereby finally delivered from their depredations.

The public distress still continued in 1817; and the Prince-Re-

gent gave up 50,000*l.* per annum for the relief of the country; and ministers also resigned one-tenth of their official incomes while the necessities of the state should require such a sacrifice. The close of this year was marked by the death of the Princess Charlotte: an event that filled the nation with mourning. She whose looks of health and gladdening smiles had long been hailed by the people with heartfelt satisfaction expired on the 6th of November, after giving birth to a still-born child. The indications of sorrow on this event becoming known were unusually general and sincere. The civic procession and entertainment on the Lord Mayor's day were abandoned; the theatres were shut up; and on the 19th, the day of her interment, every shop was closed: it was a day of voluntary humiliation, and of sorrowful meditation on the instability of human greatness and happiness. Brief as had been the days of the princess, she had not lived in vain: her life was a bright illustration of piety and virtue.

By the death of the Princess Charlotte the hope of an heir to the throne was cut off, and in 1818 several royal marriages took place in consequence. The Duke of Clarence was united to the Princess of Saxe-Meningen; the Duke of Kent to the Princess of Leiningen; and the Duke of Cambridge to the Princess of Hesse; and the Parliament made suitable though not extravagant provision for the royal couples. This year was particularly fatal to the royal family; for at the close of it her Majesty Queen Charlotte expired at Kew Palace, in the seventy-fifth year of her age. As a wife and a mother she was a pattern to her sex; and as a queen she set a noble example to the nation for virtue and morality. During the period in which she presided over the British court she preserved it from the contamination of vice, notwithstanding the dangers proceeding from the licentious examples of other European courts, as well as from that moral relaxation which our own prosperity was calculated to produce. No one of known lax morality was ever received at her court. On the death of the queen the guardianship of the aged king George III., which she had performed with so much tenderness, was entrusted to the Duke of York; and a salary of 10,000*l.* per annum was voted him for the performance of this filial duty; a measure that did not pass without much opposition.

Distress still existed among all classes of society, and especially in the manufacturing districts; and great disorders took place this year in several parts of the country. Instigated by a party named "Radical Reformers," who represented that a reform of Parliament would be the sure means of putting an end to present and future sufferings, the people entered into secret combinations to effect that object; seditious assemblages became the order of the day;

and at Manchester a riot took place, in which several were killed, and between 300 and 400 wounded, by the soldiers. Several of the ringleaders were taken and condemned to imprisonment and to the payment of fines: among them was Henry Hunt; a man whose only merit consisted in audacity and a talent for mob oratory. These events caused a great commotion in the nation; parties became bitterly exasperated against each other; and as persons of property generally adhered to the ministerial side of the question, the lower orders began to entertain a deep-rooted indignation against those in a superior position. This hostility was increased by the passing of the celebrated "Six Acts" by Parliament, which had for their object the suppression of seditious assemblages and the restraint of the press, so powerful an instrument in the hands of the factious for the promotion of disorder. These acts appear to have had the effect of restoring tranquillity; for in the year 1819 no mention is made in history of any outbreak among the people. There is little doubt, however, that the manifestations of popular feeling that had been made, contributed to the reform of our institutions; and when the public fears were allayed a more earnest desire arose for the promotion of the general welfare. The democratic spirit which was abroad was sternly repressed; but when order was restored sober attention was given to the grievances of which the people complained.

In 1820 death again visited our palaces. On the 28th of January the Duke of Kent expired, after a short illness; and eight days after, his Majesty died, in the eighty-second year of his age, and, counting the ten years of the regency, in the sixtieth year of his reign. Over the last nine years of his reign a dark and mysterious veil had been drawn. In the periods of the deepest national solicitude his mind had felt no interest; and in the hour of the most acute domestic feeling his eye had not been wet with the tears of affection: reason and sight had both departed from him: he was not allowed even to rejoice at the issue of the momentous struggle in which he left his country when his malady drove him into retirement. But, though he could not think of his people, they thought of him. His domestic virtues were contrasted with the faults of his successor, and when he died all felt as if they had lost a father. Few among the English monarchs have left a name more kindly remembered than George III.

GEORGE IV.

George IV. had so long governed the empire, that his acquisition of the crown effected no other change than that of the title of regent to king. At this time he was by no means popular: and the

assumption of this new dignity was followed by perplexities of great magnitude. He had long repudiated his wife, now Queen Caroline; and she had been living in foreign lands as an exile. This step had alienated the affections of his subjects from him; and when it became known that he was resolved to extend still further the hostility he had displayed towards his consort, their feelings became more embittered. Yet there were circumstances which promised that his reign would be glorious to the nation. He had been long accustomed to the task of governing; he ascended the throne at a mature age; and he commenced his reign in the midst of a universal and profound peace. There was now no threat of foreign invasion to "fright the isle from its propriety;" and it seemed to require but little judgment on the part of the king and his ministers to render the nation as contented within as it was secure and respected abroad. His first act showed that his policy was not to undergo any change, for all the officers of the crown were retained in his service. Before his first council he made a declaration that it would ever be his desire to promote the prosperity and happiness of his people, as well as to maintain unimpaired the religion, laws, and liberties of the kingdom. This declaration was made public; and on the 31st of January the king was proclaimed, first under the portico of his palace, and then at various stations throughout his "good city" of London.

The commencement of the reign of George IV. was signalised by the discovery of a sanguinary conspiracy. The Six Acts recently passed had quelled open sedition; but there was still an undercurrent of insubordination at work among the people. A conspiracy was set on foot which had for its object the overthrow of the government and the irremediable confusion of national affairs, by the assassination of the whole cabinet. The chief leader in this desperate plot was Arthur Thistlewood, who had once served as a subaltern in the West Indies. Associated with him were several men of wild and reckless character; the principal of whom were Ings, a butcher; Davidson, a Creole; and two others named Brunt and Tidd, who were shoemakers. The plot was to be carried into execution at a cabinet dinner given by Lord Harrowby in Grosvenor-square. Before the day arrived, however, the conspiracy was discovered; and on the evening when it was to be put into execution, as the conspirators were assembled in a stable in Cato-street, and about to sally forth on their dreadful mission, a strong body of police and soldiers surrounded them, and called upon them to surrender. In the conflict which ensued one of the police was killed; but all the above-mentioned desperadoes were captured, brought to trial, and executed. Six others were also taken with arms in their hands; five of whom were transported

for life; but the sixth received a free pardon, as he appeared to have been ignorant of the true nature of the designs of his associates.

As is usual on the occasion of a new accession to the British throne, the old Parliament had been dissolved, and a general election had taken place. The result of the elections was that the opposition gained a slight accession of strength; but the new Parliament did not materially differ from that by which it had been preceded. The session commenced on the 27th of April; and it proved to be a stormy one; for, on hearing of the accession of her husband to the throne, Queen Caroline resolved to return to England. Ministers endeavoured to prevent her taking such a step; but her resolution was fixed, and she reached the British shores on the 6th of June. She was received by the people with a hearty welcome; multitudes met her on the beach at Dover, and her progress to London resembled a triumphal procession. Great commotions followed: the whole kingdom was turned into one great arena of disputation, in which the innocence or guilt of the queen was advocated, according to the different views of the people. A committee was appointed to examine into the nature of the charges brought against her; and the result was, that a bill of pains and penalties was brought into the House of Lords. This was an act which, according to precedents in former ages, might pronounce the queen guilty of an adulterous intercourse, degrade her from her exalted station, and dissolve the marriage between her and the king. The bill passed a first, second, and third reading; but before the question was put "that the bill do pass," it was abandoned; and such a commotion was raised in the kingdom by this extraordinary proceeding, that the peers shrank from the odium they would have obtained by pushing the matter to an extremity. After this the queen went in state to St. Paul's to return public thanks: on which occasion she was surrounded by such multitudes as to make it difficult for her to pass along the streets of the metropolis; and the event was celebrated by a general illumination and other tokens of joy and triumph. But Queen Caroline was soon destined to see her popularity wane; the favour of the populace is ever fickle and uncertain. What the Queen of England was doing soon became as indifferent to the people as that of the other members of the royal family; and her final fate was an object of curiosity rather than of interest. The whole procedure was highly injurious to the national character; and every lover of order and decency, whatever his rank or his principles, rejoiced when the unseemly strife was brought to a conclusion.

In 1821 preparations were made for the coronation of George IV.; and when it was known that such an event was to take place the

Queen preferred a claim to be crowned, like her predecessors; but this was not only refused, but it was resolved that she should not even be allowed to witness the ceremony. It was in vain that she sought to obtain an entrance into Westminster Hall: she on whom the populace, almost as one man, had before waited with addresses assuring her of support and commiseration, went from door to door of the abbey, seeking admittance; but at every door she was rejected, and this was more than she could bear. She had placed her last stake on the hazard of this day; and having totally failed in her object, sunk under the deepest humiliation. But death soon came to the relief of this faulty, but most unfortunate, princess. Soon afterwards she was attacked with a fatal disease, and on the 7th of August she expired; having before her death given directions that her remains should be interred in her own country, and that this inscription should be engraved on her tomb: "Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured Queen of England." Her funeral procession was attended with a serious riot; Government had given orders that the procession should not pass through the City of London, but the populace assembled in great numbers for the purpose of opposing these orders. It was in vain that the military endeavoured to put them into execution: the hearse was forced into the city, where the procession was joined by the lord mayor and authorities, the shops being closed, and the bells of the different churches set tolling. Such was the last scene of the melancholy life of Caroline of Brunswick. The persecution of her even after death by the king was loudly condemned by the people, with great justice, for it was unworthy of manhood to carry resentment beyond the grave.

This year died also the "world tyrant," Napoleon, in the rocky island of St. Helena.

> "The fame of blood and bravery is his:
> His name hath havoc in its sound! and Time
> Shall read it while his ages roll:—'t will live
> When time and nature are forgotten words!
> For as a noble fame can never die,
> But proudly passeth on from earth to heaven
> There to be hymn'd by angels, and to crown
> With bright pre-eminence the gifted mind
> That won it gloriously; so evil fame
> A fiery torment to the soul must be
> For ever."
>
> R. MONTGOMERY.

No event of importance occurred in 1822. Parliament was chiefly occupied in debates on the agricultural distress which prevailed; on the currency; on the expediency of restoring the Roman Catholic Peers to their seats in Parliament; and on Parliamentary Reform. Similar questions occupied the session of 1823;

but none of these were definitively settled. At this time the country was in a more prosperous state than it had been for several years. Unfortunately, however, this revival of prosperity gave a dangerous activity to enterprise, and generated a spirit of headlong speculation, which subsequently produced disastrous consequences. It was during this year that the memorable era of joint-stock companies commenced, which resulted in the ruin of many families hitherto opulent. "They that will be rich often fall into temptation and a snare."

This year the king gave an instance of royal munificence, calculated to benefit the country to remote generations, in presenting to the nation a valuable library collected by his father. It was given into the charge of the trustees of the British Museum; and a sum of 40,000*l.* was voted by Parliament for the erection of a separate building for its reception; and in the following year it was transferred to the Museum. The gift is a splendid monument of the good taste and patriotic spirit of George IV.

During the session of 1824 important steps were taken towards introducing a more unrestricted system of trade. All the protecting duties between Ireland and Great Britain were repealed; and enactments were passed tending to withdraw from British silk manufacturers the protection of laws which prohibited the importation of foreign silks. The unequal restrictions on the import and export trade of wool were also removed; all which measures tended to increase the trade and commerce of England, and to benefit the whole community. It is on her commerce that the greatness of Great Britain is chiefly founded, and these measures were the commencement of a system of legislation very beneficial to it. Before the close of the year the British government acknowledged the independence of the South American colonies, which had long been at war with the mother country, Spain, and treaties of amity and commerce were concluded with Mexico, Columbia, and Buenos Ayres, which gave a fresh impetus to commerce.

A war broke out this year between the East India Company and the Burmese sovereign, and several battles were fought, in which the British were uniformly victorious. The war continued in 1825 and 1826, and the British forces penetrated, after several brilliant victories, to the vicinity of Ava, the capital of the Burmese empire. The Burmese monarch then submitted, and a treaty was entered into by which he ceded several provinces to the East India Company, and engaged to pay a large sum of money for the expenses of the war. In this war several large armies of the enemy had been almost annihilated, though the British forces did not amount to more than 5000 men, and the country was in a desolated state: the

Burmese destroying everything in their retreat which could afford sustenance to the invaders.

At this period Mr. Canning, one of the most able ministers that England ever produced, was endeavouring to introduce more liberal ideas into the administration than it had hitherto entertained. He laboured to obtain the abolition of the monopoly of grain, the emancipation of the catholics, and a Parliamentary Reform suitable to the exigencies of the time. These plans, however, were at first frustrated by the opposition of the Tories. A corn bill was passed by the Commons, but rejected by the Lords; a plan for the emancipation of the catholics experienced a similar fate; and the measure for Parliamentary Reform was not even entertained by the Commons, while the hostility to which Mr. Canning was exposed had a fatal effect on his constitution; and enfeebled by it, he fell a prey to a disease from which he might otherwise have recovered, and died in August 1827.

In the same year occurred the decease of the Duke of York, then heir presumptive to the crown. His royal highness had been for some time seriously ill, and his disease finally assumed the character of dropsy, which resulted in death, in the sixty-fourth year of his age. His royal highness was succeeded as commander-in-chief by the Duke of Wellington. On the demise of the Duke of York, the Duke of Clarence became heir presumptive to the crown, and ministers embraced this opportunity of adding 6000*l.* per annum to his income, as well as 3000*l.* as a jointure to his consort. This increase was strongly opposed by several members, on the ground that great distress prevailed in the country; to relieve which a royal letter had been issued to the bishops, exhorting them to use all their exertions in promoting charitable contributions for the needy and distressed.

Canning was succeeded in the administration by Lord Goderich, with a ministry composed partly of Tories and partly of Whigs, but which did not stand long, as there was a want of union among its members. Early in 1828 the Goderich administration was dissolved, and the Duke of Wellington became premier. All the friends of Canning were now removed, and the cabinet was composed wholly of Tories, among whom were the Earl of Aberdeen, who was charged with foreign affairs, Lord Ellenborough, Lord Bathurst, Lord Palmerston, Lord Lyndhurst, Earl Dudley, Mr. Huskisson, and last and greatest of all, Mr. Peel. All these had been decidedly opposed to the measure of Catholic Emancipation brought forward by Mr. Canning, and most of them had eloquently lifted up their voices against it; now, however, their sentiments on this subject underwent a complete change, and a bill for the emancipation of

the catholics was brought in under their auspices, passed both Houses, and in April, 1829, was sanctioned by the king. By this bill Roman Catholics were allowed to sit in both Houses of Parliament.

This measure, however, was not sufficient to satisfy the people: they had gained one great point, but they wanted another to be conceded. A Reform of Parliament was more decidedly demanded every day; but on this point the Wellington ministry was inexorable. Several attempts were made in the years 1829 and 1830 to amend the representation; but every succeeding attempt proved a failure. In the latter year a bill was brought in and passed for repealing the duty on beer, a measure intended to benefit the people, but which appears rather to have proved injurious to the morals of the lower orders, and to have increased their habit of frequenting public houses. It is now emphatically true, that —

> "Pass where we may, through city or through town,
> Village or hamlet, of this merry land,
> Though lean and beggar'd, every twentieth pace
> Conducts the unguarded nose to such a whiff
> Of stale debauch, forth issuing from the sties
> That law has licensed, as makes temperance reel."

During the session of 1830 business was interrupted by the illness and death of the king. His majesty's health had for a considerable time been in a precarious state; but the first bulletin was not issued till the 15th of April. At the latter end of May the state of his disorder afforded a hope of his recovery; but this hope proved delusive: the disease returned and increased; and on the night of the 25th of June death once more visited the palace of the kings of England. The death of George IV. excited a less lively sensation among the people than commonly follows that of English monarchs; for although he well understood the art of government he was by no means one of the most popular monarchs in English history. Perhaps one of the chief reasons of this was, the circumstance of his standing in immediate contrast with the "good old king," his father. The people remembered his failings, and, though they did not rejoice at his death, exhibited no such signs of mourning as at the death of his predecessor. But if George IV. had his faults, there were some redeeming qualities in his character. He betrayed no desire unduly to extend the prerogatives of the crown, or to curtail the rights of his subjects; and he was a munificent patron of literature and the liberal arts; praise which can scarcely be given to any member of the house of Hanover who had reigned before him. As Regent, his name will ever be associated with the most splendid triumphs in the annals of British history.

WILLIAM IV.

As soon as the death of the king was known, his next brother, William Henry, Duke of Clarence, was proclaimed by the title of William IV. On his accession no immediate change took place in the government. All the judges and other great officers were re-appointed to the places which had become vacant, and his majesty signified to the members of the administration that he wished to retain their services. A change, however, took place in the feelings of their indispensable supporters, the Whigs, which, added to the national distress that prevailed, and the disturbed state of public sentiment, soon occasioned not only their retirement from office, but the greatest change in the British constitution that had taken place since the Revolution of 1688.

The Whigs had supported the cabinet out of gratitude for the concession of Catholic Emancipation, and they seem to have expected that as they had conceded this point, the ministers would also yield to the cry for Parliamentary Reform. In this, however, they were disappointed. The Duke of Wellington boldly averred, in the House of Lords, that, in his opinion, Parliamentary Reform neither ought to be conceded, nor was required by the thinking and respectable portion of the people. From that hour a determined opposition to the Duke's government commenced, and it soon became manifest that he could not long retain his power.

Circumstances both foreign and domestic, favoured the views of the opposition. In France, this year, a great revolution took place. A royal ordinance had been recently published there, abolishing the liberty of the press, cancelling the existing system of representation, and fashioning for the kingdom a new system of election, which would produce a chamber of deputies more subservient to the royal will. All Paris rose in arms against these decrees; Charles X. was dethroned, and his descendants excluded from the succession. The French crown was then presented to the Duke of Orleans, who readily "took the oath" to the charter and the glorious revolution; and these events were hailed in England by the Whigs with applause, as the dawning of a new era in the history of man. At this time there was a dissolution of Parliament, consequent upon the demise of the late king, and the excitement produced by these events acted in the new elections very unfavourably to ministers. The question of Parliamentary Reform now assumed a more prominent and remarkable shape than it had hitherto done. The force of example was added to the existing motives for change; and the notion of merely transferring the privileges of this or that corrupt borough to an unrepresented

populous town was discarded as insufficient, and a radical change in the representation was loudly and boldly demanded. Meetings, petitions, and addresses were got up in every direction in order to bring about such a change, and threats were even uttered that a refusal would lead to a general convulsion, in which the privileged orders might possibly be compelled to yield more than was now required. Disturbances took place throughout the country. Incendiaries lit up conflagrations night after night, in which much property was consumed; and bands of men, still more daring than the incendiary, attacked machinery of all kinds, especially the agricultural, the use of which became so unpopular that insurance offices refused a policy to those who kept it on their premises. Government attempted to put down these outrages by the strong arm of the law; the military force was increased in the disturbed counties, and a proclamation was issued, offering rewards for the conviction of incendiaries; but this only increased the evil: some of the rioters were captured, but outrage and violence still continued.

It was under these circumstances that, on the 26th of October, the first Parliament of King William met for the despatch of business. Notices were given early in the session, that a change in the representation would be demanded, which ministers declared their intention to oppose; but their embarrassment was greatly increased by a domestic occurrence. Some time before the meeting of Parliament the king and queen had promised to honour the lord mayor's feast, at Guildhall, with their presence. Great preparations were made by the citizens on the approach of the festival; but two days before it was to take place, the lord mayor received a note from the home-secretary, stating that his majesty had resolved, on the persuasion of his ministry, to postpone his visit to a future opportunity. The reason given was that, from information recently received, there was cause to apprehend that, notwithstanding the devoted loyalty and affection borne to his majesty by the citizens of London, advantage would be taken of the occasion to create tumult and confusion, and thereby to endanger the lives and properties of his majesty's subjects. This announcement filled the metropolis with alarm. It was conceived that some atrocious conspiracy had been brought to light, and that the crisis of the constitution and the country had arrived. The funds fell three per cent.: and in the country it was generally expected that the next mail would bring intelligence that London was in a state of insurrection. All, however, remained calm: the circumstance which led to the decision of his majesty was simply that the Duke of Wellington had been warned by the lord mayor elect to come guarded to the festival, as information had been received by him that a set of desperadoes intended to attack his grace's person on

his approach to the hall. Such was the explanation given in Parliament, when ministers were called upon to declare the grounds upon which they had acted; but this was not deemed sufficient reason for the postponement of the king's visit to Guildhall. Ministers had been unpopular before, and their unpopularity was increased a hundredfold by this circumstance. It was obvious that the Duke's administration had received a shock from which it could not recover; and the opposition made a final and successful attack upon it on the 15th of November. On that day the chancellor of the exchequer stated to the house his arrangements for the civil list, which he proposed to raise to the annual sum of 970,000*l*. This was opposed as extravagant; and a motion was carried against ministers, by which a select committee was to be appointed to take into consideration the estimates and accounts, presented by command of his majesty. This was fatal to the Wellington administration: and on the following day it was announced in both Houses that ministers had resigned, and that they continued to hold office only till their successors should be appointed.

The task of forming a fresh administration was committed by his majesty to Earl Grey, and the new ministry was complete in about a week, and consisted of Whigs, and of former adherents of the deceased premier, Canning. The Duke of Richmond was the only leading member of the old Tory party who entered the new Cabinet, and he became postmaster-general. The other members of the government were the Duke of Devonshire, Lords Althorpe, Holland, Palmerston, Goderich, Auckland, and Lansdowne; the Honourable Agar Ellis; Sir Edward Paget and Sir Robert Spencer; and Messrs. Denman, Howe, Thompson, Ellice, Rice, Grant, and Wynne. Mr. Brougham, who had distinguished himself in the opposition to the Wellington ministry, was created a peer, and became lord-chancellor.

At the opening of the session the speech from the throne had recommended a Regency Bill. This was under consideration when the late cabinet was dissolved; and the first act of the new ministry was to pass such a measure. The bill provided that in the event of a posthumous child of the present king, her Majesty, Queen Adelaide, should be guardian and regent of the kingdom; and that if such an event did not occur, then the Duchess of Kent was to be guardian and regent, during the minority of her daughter, the Princess Victoria, the heiress presumptive to the throne of Great Britain.

The new ministry stood pledged to apply themselves forthwith to what was termed the reform of Parliament; that is, to strengthening and enlarging the democratical part of the constitution. This great measure was introduced by Lord John Russell, on the 1st of

March, 1831. His lordship was not a cabinet minister, but the measure was entrusted to him in consideration of his constant and strenuous exertions in this cause. Extravagant demands had been made by the people, involving not only the shortening of the duration of Parliaments, the extension and the equalisation of the franchise and vote by ballot, but a reform of the laws relating to property as well as representation; and some even recommended that the possessions of the Church should be seized and appropriated "to the necessities of the state." Ministers wisely paid no attention to these extravagant demands; but they produced a measure involving a very extensive change in the representation, and by which old boroughs were to be disfranchised and new ones created. The general result of the measure went to create a new constituency of between 300,000 and 400,000 persons; the increase in counties being about 100,000; in towns already represented, about 110,000; in new boroughs, 50,000; in Scotland, 60,000, and in Ireland, 40,000. The debate on this great change in the representation occupied the greater part of the session; by some it was opposed as too sweeping in its nature, by others as not sufficiently extensive. On the second reading of the bill for the amendment of the representation of the people in England and Wales, an amendment was moved, that it should be read that day six months, which would have been equivalent to a rejection. This was lost by a majority of one only, which was in substance a defeat of ministers, although it was celebrated generally as a victory by illuminations. Subsequently a bill for amending the representation of Ireland was brought in, and read a first time. The House then went into committee on the clauses of the first bill; and it met with such opposition, that it became evident it could not be carried in the present Parliament. Ministers now recommended a dissolution; and Parliament was prorogued on the 10th of May for that purpose. On the next day a proclamation was issued, announcing its dissolution, and directing a new election, the writs of which were made returnable on the 14th of June.

The declared intention of the dissolution was to obtain from the people a House of Commons pledged to support the Reform Bill; and this was the only test by which candidates were tried. They were called upon to support "the bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill" which ministers had proposed. Every means were tried to gain a majority in its favour. Candidates were even told by the electors, that they would not vote for them, unless they promised to support it, because if they did, they would vote against the king! The official influence of the ministry was put forth unsparingly. In some cases, as at Dublin, it was so used that the members returned were declared not duly elected. The excite-

ment which everywhere prevailed had scarcely an example in history. The people had been taught to believe that a reform of Parliament would prove a panacea for all their grievances and a cure for all their sufferings; and therefore they exhibited the greatest anxiety to return members who would assist in bringing that reform into existence. Hence those who were known to be adverse to reform were everywhere exposed to the most lawless violence wherever they dared to show themselves on the hustings. They were denounced as the oppressors of the people and the opponents of the king. In some instances the lives as well as the property of men were sacrificed; and in Scotland, especially, the elections were controlled by the violence of riotous mobs. The result of all this was, that the elections generally terminated in favour of the reforming candidates. Out of the eighty-two members for the counties of England, all but twelve who were returned stood pledged to support the bill. In a word, ministers succeeding in obtaining a House of Commons so fashioned that the success of the Reform Bill in that House was certain.

The new Parliament met on the 14th of June, and the speech from the throne requested the earliest attention of the House to the great question at issue, which ministers lost no time in bringing forward. It was introduced on the 24th of June, by Lord John Russell, and passed the Commons in all its stages triumphantly; but it had yet to be seen whether the Lords would have the boldness to reject it. All the means in their power were used by the Reformers to intimidate the Peers into submission. Political unions got up addresses and petitions; and meetings were convened to warn them of the consequences of rejecting the bill, and to inform them how deeply the security of commercial as well as of all other property was involved in passing it unmutilated and without delay. Still the Peers resolved to oppose a proud front to what they regarded as an innovation in the constitution. The bill was read a first time in the Lords, and was directed to be read a second time on the 3rd of October. In moving the second reading Earl Grey lifted up his warning voice against its rejection. Their lordships, he said, must adopt this bill, or they would have in its stead something stronger and more extensive. The measure was brought forward at the recommendation of the crown, and had been carried by an overwhelming majority of the other house: were they then, he asked, prepared to reject it, and that on its second reading? It appeared they were; for, after many powerful speeches for and against the measure, the second reading was negatived.

The rejection of the Reform Bill created a great sensation throughout the country. Meetings were held in every part, and

riots became the order of the day. In London the mansions of the Duke of Wellington and others were attacked, and were only saved from destruction by the timely aid of the police; and similar scenes took place in various parts of the country: Bristol especially was the scene of gross outrages; the episcopal palace, the mansion-house, the excise-office, with a great part of Queen-square, fell a sacrifice to the flames; many warehouses, likewise, shared in the conflagration: the disorders were only quelled by the power of the military, and about 100 persons were killed or wounded, and about 200 were taken prisoners. A royal proclamation was issued in November, exhorting all classes to unite in suppressing tumults; but as winter advanced, the alarm of the executive government increased, and apprehensions were entertained lest the peace of the country should be endangered by the formidable associations which everywhere existed. Nor was it in England alone that danger was apprehended: in Ireland there was a loud cry raised for the Repeal of the Union, in several counties the most wanton outrages were committed, and all law was there trampled under foot.

In September, before the Lords rejected the Reform Bill, the coronation of William IV. took place; but the ceremony was shorn of the grotesque pageantry of chivalric times, and was confined to the interior of the abbey. On this occasion his majesty was saluted with as hearty cheers from the multitude, as greeted his father in the most popular period of his reign. In conformity with precedents, the coronation was distinguished by the grant of new honours. Three marquises, four earls, and fifteen barons were created; and this increase of the Peerage was afterwards still further extended, and twenty-eight more names were added to the list, for the express purpose of carrying the Reform Bill.

In the midst of the distracted state of the country the confusion was increased by the visitation of a new and terrible disease called the cholera morbus. This frightful malady first appeared on the banks of the Ganges, in 1817; and since that period it had been slowly but surely making its way towards England. It had extended eastward along the Asiatic continent, and through the islands of the Indian Ocean to China and to Timor: and westward to Bombay, Persia, Asiatic Turkey, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, which had all in succession experienced the dreadful visitation. Precautions had been taken in England, by enforcing quarantine regulations, which it was supposed would preserve the country from the malady, but they were fruitless. Before the close of the year it found its way to Sunderland, and from thence to the metropolis, and to almost every part of the empire. Concerning the disease there was a great contrariety of opinion in the medical profession. The main points on which they differed were, as to whether the disease was

contagious or not; whether it was imported or indigenous; and whether it partook of the properties of the plague, or was to be regarded as a transient scourge. Whatever it was, it proved fatal to hundreds; one out of every three attacked by it fell a victim to its ravages; and some even increased its terrors by declaring it an instrument of punishment to a guilty nation.

> "God proclaims
> His hot displeasure against guilty men
> That live an atheist life; involves the heaven
> In tempests; quits his grasp upon the winds.
> And gives them all their fury; bids a plague
> Kindle a fiery boil upon the skin
> And putrefy the breath of blooming health.
> He calls for famine, and the meagre fiend
> Blows mildew from between his shrivelled lips,
> And taints the golden ear. He springs his mines
> And desolates a nation at a blast."

The British Parliament re-assembled in December, and in this session the advocates of Parliamentary Reform were again defeated. A new bill, similar in principles to that which had been rejected, was brought in before the Christmas holidays, and though it passed the Commons, and was read a second time in the Lords on the seventh of May, 1832, it was finally rejected. On this defeat of ministers they resigned, and a great commotion followed in the country. The annals of England, indeed, do not present a more alarming period than the interval between the 9th and 16th of May, during which negotiations were pending for a new administration. Loud outcries were raised against the House of Lords; and the queen herself was charged with being hostile to the bill, and therefore to the wishes of the people. Addresses were voted to the king by political assemblies, praying him to create as many Peers as might be necessary to ensure the success of the bill; others were presented to the Commons, praying them to stop the supplies; and threats were held out that unless measures were taken in accordance with their advice, tumult, anarchy, and confusion would overspread the land, and would cease only with the extinction of the privileged orders. At some of the meetings language was used daring any administration to assume the reins of government without undertaking to carry the whole bill. The king found the greatest difficulty in forming an administration. Lord Lyndhurst was first charged with the duty of constructing it, but all his efforts failed. At length the king had again recourse to Earl Grey, who succeeded in forming a cabinet; and then, in order to prevent the further creation of Peers, many members of the House of Lords, abandoning for a time their rights and duties as legislators, absented themselves from Par-

liament, and the Reform Bill for England and Wales was passed on the 4th of June. Three days after it received the royal assent by commission. It was followed by similar bills for Ireland and Scotland, and thus the storm which had long agitated the country was hushed to peace. By its opponents the measure of reform was looked upon as the harbinger of ruin to the country. "Reform," said one of them, "has triumphed: the barriers of the constitution are broken down: the waters of destruction have burst the gates of the temple, and the tempest begins to howl. Who can say where its course shall stop? Who can stay its speed?" But if ruin was the natural consequence of this measure, we can only say that an overruling Providence has averted the calamity, and that which was looked upon as the undermining of the constitution has been ordained to be for its stability: that which was deemed a curse has proved a blessing.

The passing of the Reform Bill was followed by a general election, and, as might have been expected, the result of the elections was generally in favour of the ministerial candidates, or of those who professed the same general views, and declared their adherence to a reforming ministry. The first session of the new Parliament was opened by the king in person, on the 5th of February, 1833.

During this session the charter of the Bank of England expired, but was renewed; and while the political government of our vast territories in Hindostan was again vested in the East India Company, the trade of India and China was thrown open to British enterprise. This session is further rendered memorable by the passing of an act for the entire abolition of slavery in the West Indies, a measure which, for a long series of years, had been advocated by the humane Wilberforce and other Christian philanthropists. In former sessions the importation of slaves from Africa had been prohibited, and measures had been adopted for the amelioration of the condition of the slave population; but up to this year they still wore their chains; by the first Reform Parliament of England, however, these chains were for ever broken. The sum of 20,000,000*l.* was granted to the proprietors by way of compensation, and the slaves were placed in a state of apprenticeship, which has since expired and left them in perfect freedom. Thus was the dark spot of slavery wiped out of the British annals. We had long had no slaves at home, and now it was nobly resolved that we should have none abroad; that wherever Britain's power was felt, mankind should likewise feel her mercy.

"She started from her trance, and round the shore
Beheld her supplicating sons once more

Pleading the suit so long, so vainly tried,
Renewed, resisted, promised, pledged, denied;
The Negro's claim to all his Maker gave,
And all the tyrant ravished from the slave.
Her yielding heart confessed the righteous claim;
Sorrow had softened it, and love o'ercame;
Shame flush'd her noble cheek, her bosom burned,
To helpless, hopeless Africa she turned:
She saw her sister in the mourner's face,
And rushed with tears into her dark embrace:
'All hail!' exclaimed the empress of the sea,
'Thy chains are broken: Africa, be free!'"

Ireland was at this time in a deplorable condition. Famine, disease, and crime devastated the whole country. In one province alone there had occurred in one year 196 murders and attempts at murder, 194 burnings, and nearly 2000 burglaries and attacks on houses,—crimes which were in a great measure the results of the reckless system of agitation which prevailed in that ill-fated country. The subject was brought before parliament, and in connexion with a measure investing the executive with extraordinary powers for the suppression of disturbance, thence called the Irish Coercion Bill, various bills were introduced for the amelioration of the grievances of Ireland. One of these had for its object the reform of the Irish Protestant church, and one of its provisions involved the appropriation of Irish tithes, after due provision for the Protestant clergy, to general purposes of education. This clause was strongly opposed by the Tories, and was made the pretext for the rejection of the bill by the House of Lords. Ireland was then, as it had been for a long series of years, and as it still continues to be, the greatest difficulty which the British ministry has to encounter.

The measures adopted to repress the outrages in Ireland were found to be inoperative. Crime still abounded; and in the session of 1834 the Irish Coercion Bill, which was to have expired in August, was renewed, and rendered more stringent. Some of the provisions of the bill went to prevent those meetings which enabled agitators to work on the ignorance and passions of the misguided multitude; but, before this bill was passed, the administration of Earl Grey was dissolved. The great disturber of the peace of Ireland was the notorious O'Connell, who, as soon as the bill for Catholic emancipation was passed, raised a loud cry for the repeal of the Union. He even had the temerity to make a motion to that effect in Parliament, but it was strenuously opposed by government and members on both sides of the house. The daring character of O'Connell was well known; but, instead of meeting him with bold defiance, Mr. Littleton, the Irish secretary, committed the fatal error of secretly negotiating with him, soothing him, and even

intrusting him with the views and determinations of government. This involved the fate of the whole cabinet. O'Connell was acquainted with the provisions of the renewed Coercion Act; and though he secretly promised ministers to aid them in their design, he openly declaimed against them for endeavouring to annihilate the constitutional rights of his country. Mr. Littleton's indiscretion finally led to his own resignation, and that of Lord Althorp and Earl Grey: and Lord Melbourne then became premier, all the other members of the cabinet retaining office.

One act was carried by the Melbourne administration which has proved of great importance to all classes of the community. It had for its object the entire organisation of the poor-laws; a measure which had long been urgently required. Great difference of opinion exists, even at the present day, regarding its merits; but it is clear that if there are some evils attached to it, they are outweighed by the advantages derived therefrom by society at large. It has not only relieved the owners and occupiers of lands from heavy burdens, but it has raised the moral character of the English peasantry. Under the old poor-laws they unblushingly sought the pittance of charity; but now they are in general desirous of subsisting by their own honest industry.

The rule of the Melbourne administration was but brief. Before the prorogation of Parliament its weakness and vacillation had become apparent, and its want of intrinsic power had rendered it dependent on O'Connell and his faction. But the Irish agitators, while they supported the ministers, expressed the utmost contempt for them; thus bringing their government further into disrepute. At the same time the most inveterate hostility was evinced to them by the public press, which denounced their incapacity to carry on government on any fixed principles. Some of its members also gave high offence to the king; and he availed himself of an opportunity afforded him by the death of Earl Spencer, to dismiss the whole ministry from his service. The task of forming a new cabinet was then committed so Sir Robert Peel, who became premier, and the new ministry was formed towards the close of the year.

The change in the administration was followed in 1835 by a general election, and in England the new government obtained a majority in the elections; but in Ireland and Scotland public opinion was decidedly against it. When Parliament assembled, it was left in a minority on the very first subject of discussion, that of the choice of a speaker. This defeat was brought about by the union of O'Connell with the Whigs; but as it was hoped that this union would not prove lasting, ministers still retained office. Upon several subsequent divisions, however, they were equally unsuc-

cessful; and on being defeated in a measure concerning the appropriation of the surplus of the revenues of the Irish Church, Sir Robert Peel resigned. All the members of the Melbourne cabinet, with the exception of Lord Brougham, were now recalled; and during this session they succeeded in passing bills for the reform of the English corporations, and for the solemnisation of the marriages of Dissenters in their own chapels. These measures were followed in the session of 1836 by laws for the better registration of births, marriages, and deaths; for the commutation of English tithes; and the nearest equalisation of episcopal sees. Upon Irish questions, however, the House of Lords was still opposed to the views of the cabinet and the majority of the House of Commons, and they accordingly refused to pass an Irish tithe bill with the appropriation-clause, and the Commons refused to accept the measure without it, so that there was once more a collision between the two houses.

At this time the affairs of the Canadas forced themselves on the attention of the legislature: for the House of Assembly in Lower Canada had recently carried its opposition to the mother-country to the extent of refusing the supplies. An attempt was made to reconcile the differences through the intervention of commissioners; and this failing, in 1837 the two branches of the British legislature agreed to oppose by force the refractory spirit displayed by the colonists. Subsequently Lord Durham was appointed lord-high-commissioner of the colonies, with the most comprehensive powers for the suppression of revolt, the amelioration of grievances and the reorganisation of the institutions of that country.

Ever since his accession to the throne the king's health had been in general good. In the course of the present spring, however, symptoms of decline began to exhibit themselves; and they increased so rapidly, that in June they foretokened dissolution. The last days of the sovereign were spent in preparing for eternity; and nothing seemed to give him greater pleasure than the presence of the Archbishop of Canterbury, from whose hands he devoutly received the sacrament. This was on Sunday, the 18th of June; and on the following day he breathed his last. His Majesty expired without a struggle, and without a groan, his affectionate consort still holding his hands, unwilling to believe the reality of his spirit's departure. "Thus died, in the seventy-third year of his age, in firm reliance on the merits of his Redeemer, King William IV.: a just and upright king, a forgiving enemy, a sincere friend, and a most gracious and indulgent master." Few monarchs of England ever possessed the love of his subjects in a greater degree than William IV. There was but one opinion in the country of his character; and that was expressive of his kindness

and amiability. He does not appear to have had a personal enemy throughout his dominions, although he had sanctioned measures to which a large section of the community were opposed. All felt that what he did was done in the belief that it was for the good of the country, whose interests were ever dear to his heart.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.

1765. The American Stamp Act passed, but repealed the next year.
Watt obtains a patent for his steam-engine.
1767. The spinning jenny invented by James Hargreaves, and the spinning frame by Arkwright.
1768. Captain Cook sailed on his first voyage of discovery.
The Royal Academy founded.
1773. The taxes on tea, &c., resisted by the Americans, and 342 chests thrown overboard at Boston, and the American war begun.
1776. Boston evacuated by the British.
1783. The independence of the United States of America acknowledged by England.
1784. The first balloon voyage made from Passy, near Paris.
1785. The steam engine first applied to cotton spinning.
1787. Meeting of the first assembly of notables in France.
1788. First settlement in Australia, at Botany Bay.
The king attacked by insanity.
1789. The Bastile destroyed at Paris.
1791. Flight of the king of France, and his re-capture.
1793. The King of France beheaded, January 21, and war declared against Great Britain.
The Queen of France also put to death, October 16.
1794. The Revolutionary Tribunal abolished.
1796. Napoleon Buonaparte appointed to command the army of Italy.
Vaccination introduced in England by Dr. Jenner.
1797. A French force of 1400 men landed in Wales, but surrendered in two days.
1798. Breaking out of a rebellion in Ireland on the night of May 23.
The Rebels defeated at Vinegar Hill, June 21.
Victory of the Nile gained by Nelson.
1800. Napoleon First Consul.
The Emperor Paul of Russia assassinated.
1802. Peace of Amiens.
1804. Napoleon crowned Emperor, at Nôtre-Dame.
An army intended for the invasion of England, collected at Boulogne.
Napoleon crowned King of Italy at Milan.
Nelson gains the victory of Trafalgar, but is himself killed.
1806. Death of Mr. Pitt; of Charles James Fox.
Defeat of the Prussians at Jena, and entry of Napoleon into Berlin.
1807. An Act passed for the abolition of the Slave Trade.
Bombardment of Copenhagen by the British, and the surrender of the city.
Part of a street in London (Pall Mall) lit with gas.
1809. Landing of Sir Arthur Wellesley with a British army at Lisbon.
1812. The French retreat from Russia.
1814. Napoleon abdicates and retires to Elba.
1815. Returns from Elba, is defeated at Waterloo, and sent to St. Helena.
The assize of bread abolished in London and its environs.

A.D.
1817. An Act passed for the establishment of Savings Bank.
1819. Sir E. Parry sailed in search of a North-west Passage.
Sir J. Franklin sailed on his first expedition.
1820. The Duke de Berri, the nephew of the King of France, assassinated in Paris.
Five persons executed in England for what was called the "Cato-Street Conspiracy."
1821. Napoleon Buonaparte died at St. Helena, at the age of fifty-two.
1824. Lord Byron died at Missolonghi, in Greece.
Captain Parry sailed again to seek the north-west passage.
Captain Franklin for the same object.
1825. Captain Beechy sailed to co-operate with him through Behring's Straits.
1826. The Janissaries abolished in Constantinople.
Captain Parry sailed again for the Arctic Sea.
1827. The Turkish fleet defeated at Navarino, by the English, French, and Russian fleets combined.
1829. An Act passed for the Improvement of the London Police.
Captain Ross sailed for the Arctic Sea.
The French landed in Algiers.
1830. A conflict at Paris between the people and the military, and expulsion of Charles X.
Mr. W. Huskisson accidentally killed at the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway.
Riots at Bristol.
Breaking out of the cholera at Sunderland.
1832. Sir Walter Scott died.
The Reform Bill passed.
1833. Captain Back sailed in search of Captain Ross to the Arctic Sea.
The Act passed for the abolition of Slavery in British colonies.
An Act to regulate the labour of young persons in Factories.
Captain Ross returned, having ascertained the true position of the Northern Magnetic Pole.
1836. The Marriage and Registration Acts passed.
An attempt made on the life of the King of the French.

CHAP. XXII.

ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA.

ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA, who now succeeded to the British throne, was the daughter of the late Duke of Kent, and at the period of assuming the regal dignity was eighteen years of age. Her accession was hailed with more than ordinary enthusiasm; and all parties in the state vied with each other in testifying their affectionate allegiance to the youthful sovereign. One effect of the descent to the crown to a female was the separation from it of Hanover, after a union of more than a century. This loss of territory, however, scarcely called forth an expression of regret from a single individual, a proof of the little value that is attached in this country to foreign dominions as a source of wealth and strength. The queen's uncle, Ernest Duke of Cumberland, now became King of Hanover.

The formal business of Parliament was completed with all possible dispatch, and at the close of the session the Parliament was dissolved.

At this time the country was in a state of perfect tranquillity. The popularity of the ministers had been declining, but the demise of the king promised an increasing stability to their power; Queen Victoria was believed to have been educated by her mother in principles favourable to their rule; and her countenance and support was expected, not only to give security but popularity to their government. Nor did they fail to turn the event to good account. In the new elections it was proclaimed that the young queen entered warmly into their views, and espoused their political creed without reservation. Ministerial candidates traversed the country, and made free use of her majesty's name, inviting the electors to exhibit their loyalty by supporting her ministers. This appeal to the people, however, in a great measure failed in its object; for, after a keen trial of strength between rival political parties, their triumphs were nearly balanced.

In the autumn of this year, the great corporation of the city of London distinguished itself by a striking demonstration of its loyalty in a magnificent entertainment which was given to the queen, in Guildhall, on the 9th of November. On this occasion the utmost enthusiasm prevailed: along the entire route to and from the city, her Majesty was greeted with enthusiastic cheers, and in the evening a brilliant illumination appeared along the whole line of her passage. Nothing was wanting to give the utmost possible splendour to the festival.

On the 20th of November the queen opened the new Parliament; and before the Christmas holydays news arrived of a revolt in Canada. This was the first subject brought under notice after the recess, at the opening of the year 1838; and a bill was passed, after much opposition, for the suspension of the existing constitution of that country. Besides the affairs of Canada, the chief subjects which occupied the attention of Parliament this session, were those of vote by ballot, of slavery, and of education; but the motions relative to them were all negatived. The latter, which was brought in by Lord Brougham, had for its main object the education of the people without reference to creed; but the difficulties it encountered were insurmountable. Legislators, it seemed, liked education very well, but they liked disputation better.

The autumn of this year was rendered remarkable by a turbulent spirit which displayed itself among the working classes in the manufacturing districts. The causes of this disaffection were the poor laws and the price of provisions, as a remedy for which evils, mob orators had taught the people to demand universal suffrage. A favourite practice with the parties to these transactions at this time, was to assemble by torchlight in the open air: a practice which gave an air of mystery to the meetings, calculated to strike the imagination of the vulgar, and also gave the working classes generally an opportunity of attending them. The speeches delivered at these meetings have been characterised as "furious nonsense;" but they were at the same time calculated to work mischief. Happily, however, the government exerted itself effectually to restrain the fury of the people, and order was restored.

In the session of 1839 a bill was passed for the regulation of municipal corporations in Ireland; a measure which had before been several times discussed in Parliament. At this time disputes existed between the British government and the Jamaica legislature, arising from a recent act, which empowered her Majesty in council to make rules for the government of the West India prisons; to appoint inspectors; and to regulate other matters of necessary discipline. This was resisted by the Jamaica assembly as a violation of their rights, and resolutions condemnatory of the bills were unanimously adopted. So refractory were the members that they resolved to forego the exercise of their legislative functions till the bill was repealed; and, in consequence of this resolution, a bill was brought into Parliament for the suspension of the existing constitution of Jamaica for five years. Ministers had before been considerably weakened by the desertion of some of their supporters; on this occasion others voted against them, and the final result of the debate brought about their resignation. Sir Robert Peel failed in the formation of a new cabinet, chiefly be-

cause he had desired to make a sweeping change in the queen's household, which her Majesty resisted; and as Sir Robert Peel conceived that his measures would be thwarted by the influence of the Whig ladies around the queen, he declined the important trust which had been committed to his hands, and the Melbourne administration returned.

Measures were taken by them, after their resumption of office, for the advancement of education, which were not indeed commensurate with the wants of the people; but as every section of the religious community opposed each other on this great question, it was rendered very difficult for ministers to adopt any enlarged or enlightened educational measure. They found equal difficulty, too, in legislating for the Canadas; and the great expectations which had been formed, at the commencement of the session on this subject, were doomed to be disappointed. Nothing was done; no measure was even submitted for consideration. Conversations of a personal nature took place, but the subject was not brought forward by any party as became the legislators of a great and mighty empire. A bill, however, was passed, having for its object the healing of the breach existing between the British Parliament and the Jamaica house of assembly, which had the desired effect. Other acts were also passed for the better ordering of prisons; the suppression of the Portuguese slave-trade; and for the disposal of waste lands in the colonies: but this session was particularly signalised by the reduction of the rates of postage,— a measure which has greatly tended to the promotion of the interests of trade and commerce, and has proved of great individual benefit.

During the session of 1839, a "National Petition" was presented to Parliament, signed by 1,200,000 of the working classes, demanding what was called the People's Charter, of which the chief provisions were universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual parliaments, remuneration of members for their attendance in parliament, and the abolition of the property qualifications. The motion to take this petition into consideration was rejected, and its rejection was contemporaneous with alarming riots at Birmingham, arising out of the proceedings of the Chartists. That dangerous body of men had recently resorted to many strange expedients, in order to impress the people with an idea that they were the strongest party in the country, and that they could carry their plans into effect without resistance. Large bodies of them went from house to house with books to obtain subscriptions for their purposes; and if people refused to subscribe, they would enter their names into one of the books as though they were marked objects of vengeance. Another of their practices was to go in procession to the churches, and to take possession of the body of the edifice;

a few among them have even been known to smoke their pipes, and keep on their hats, as if in defiance of the customary reverential deportment. These Chartist combinations were prevalent throughout the country: and during this year the members proceeded to elect deputies in the most important cities, in order to form a National Convention. These deputies met at Birmingham, in a place called the Bull-ring, and various encounters took place at this spot between the mob and the police and soldiers. Several houses were destroyed; and such was the danger to which this town was exposed, that it was found necessary to establish a more efficient police, and to provide sufficient military means to preserve the peace. Certain bills were passed in Parliament for this purpose, and order was eventually restored.

An announcement was made at the opening of the session of 1840, that her majesty was about to be married to Albert, Prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. A bill was consequently brought in and passed for the naturalisation of his royal highness: and the sum of 30,000*l.* a year was also voted him out of the consolidated fund, to commence on the day of his marriage with her majesty, and to continue during life. The marriage took place on the 10th of February, and has been productive of much mutual happiness to the illustrious pair as well as conducive to the welfare of the nation. The universal prayer of her loyal subjects is, that they may be long spared to each other, and that her majesty may long continue to rule over the destinies of the British empire.

A bill was this year brought into Parliament, and passed, for the union of the two Canadas. Much discussion also took place on the affairs of China; for during the last year a serious collision had occurred between the Chinese authorities and the British subjects at Canton. This led to hostilities: the British captured Chusan, and for the first time, British arms wrested from the monarch of that vast empire a portion of his dominions. The disputes which had occurred, arose out of the contraband traffic in opium; for the Chinese government had prohibited the introduction of this pernicious article into their country; and an imperial commissioner had demanded that every particle of opium on board the British ships should be at once delivered up to the Chinese authorities and destroyed. This was refused, and the refusal gave rise to a series of hostilities which led the British government to interfere, and to engage in war with the Chinese empire. The policy of government, with reference to the affairs of China, was made the subject of a series of condemnatory resolutions in Parliament, and they were only negatived by a small majority. The injustice of the war was strongly felt by the British nation; but it was hoped that by it, a door might be opened for the preaching of the Gospel

in that vast empire; an empire containing more than 300,000,000 of human beings, all bowing down to gods of wood and stone.

At this period, ministers had in a great measure lost the confidence of the country; and their weakness became evident in the session of 1841, when several motions relative to the registration of voters in Ireland, &c., were negatived. It was expected that from the defeats they experienced they would resign; but they still clung to office; and in consequence of this, Sir Robert Peel moved a resolution to the effect that her majesty's ministers did not possess the confidence of the House of Commons sufficiently to enable them to carry any measure of essential importance to the public welfare; and that their continuance in office, under such circumstances, was at variance with the spirit of the constitution. This resolution was adopted; but instead of resigning, the ministers dissolved Parliament, and made an appeal to the country by a general election. Great efforts were made by both parties on this occasion; but the results of the elections were unfavourable to ministers, as was seen at the opening of the new Parliament, when an amendment to the address was carried against them by a large majority. This amendment to the address represented to her majesty the necessity that her ministers should enjoy the confidence of the country, and that it was not possessed by the present administration. In reply, her majesty stated that she would take measures for the formation of a new Cabinet, and Sir Robert Peel was charged with this task. This time he was successful, the changes extending even to the queen's household. The principal members of the new administration were the Duke of Wellington, the Duke of Buckingham, the Earl of Haddington, Sir James Graham, Lords Ellenborough, Stanley, Wharncliffe, Lowther, and Lyndhurst; the honourable H. Goulburn, Sir E. Knatchbull, and Sir H. Hardinge. The only measures of importance brought forward this session by the new ministry were for the better administration of justice in the Court of Chancery, and for the continuance of the new poor-law commission.

This year the differences which had arisen between the courts of Great Britain and the Chinese empire were for a time adjusted, though not till after further hostilities had taken place, and all the forts surrounding Canton had been captured: whereupon the Chinese Emperor purchased peace by indemnification; the island and harbour of Hong Kong were ceded to the British crown; an indemnity of 6,000,000 dollars was to be paid to the British government; and the trade and commerce between the two countries, which had been stopped, were to be renewed. Subsequently, further important concessions were made by the Chinese empire, and the result of the war has proved highly favourable to

the interests of Great Britain. It must be mentioned also to the honour of the British nation, that great exertions have been made, and are still making, for the Christianising of the Chinese people. Missionaries have been sent out, churches have been erected, and a good hope is entertained that the multitudes inhabiting the empire of China will eventually embrace the divine doctrines of the Gospel; and become experimentally acquainted with the way of salvation through the atoning blood of a crucified Redeemer.

An important treaty was signed this year between France, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain, whereby the former powers agreed to adopt the English laws relative to the slave-trade.

Several important measures were passed by parliament in the session of 1842, one of which was a new corn-law, on the principle of a graduated scale. Great opposition was made to this measure, and several resolutions were moved as amendments; but the bill finally passed in its original state. The next important measure passed was an income-tax bill, by which all persons having an income of more than 150*l.* per annum were subjected to a tax of seven-pence in the pound: and personal property was also taxed to the same amount. This impost was warmly opposed; but after several motions made, with the view of getting rid of it, it was finally adopted. It was to cease in three years; but at the end of that time it was renewed, and the income-tax bill is still part of the law of the land. The passing of this measure was followed by extensive alterations in the tariff, or customs' duties. The duties on numerous articles of trade and commerce were either greatly reduced or wholly repealed by a bill, entitled the "Customs' Act," which has proved highly beneficial to the country. The repeal of the corn-laws was demanded; but government still opposed this measure, though it was evident that some such one must soon be adopted. Another bill passed this session had for its object the restraining of the employment of children in mines and collieries, which had led to great moral degradation, and much human suffering: this humane law was brought about by the exertions of Lord Ashley, who had previously procured an enactment to prevent the cruelties inflicted on children employed in factories. During this session an attempt was made upon the queen's life by an insane person named Bean, and a bill was passed with perfect unanimity for her majesty's protection. A bill was also passed in this session renewing the poor-law commission for five years, and forming districts for the purposes of education, with various minor matters. The proceedings of the session were closed by a debate, taking a retrospective view of its operations; a practice which had of late

years been adopted by both parties, and which gave occasion to much angry discussion.

Hostilities had been recently renewed with China; but in this year the war was finally concluded, and a treaty was signed on the 26th of August, by which the Chinese engaged to pay 21,000,000 dollars, and by which several ports were to be opened to British merchants. The islands of Chusan and Kolang-soo were also to be held by the British till the money payments were made, and arrangements for opening the ports completed. Thus ended this inglorious war; a war in which success was attended with little honour, and which was solely occasioned by a traffic injurious to the bodies and souls of men.

The British arms were successful this year in a war with the Affghans, in the East Indies. At the commencement of this war, in the preceding year, they had suffered several reverses; but they were now everywhere victorious. Several fortresses of the Affghan country were stormed, and some of them levelled with the dust, while thousands of their troops were slain, and the whole country in the line of the march of the British troops devastated. The Affghans had for several centuries been hostile to the British rule in India; but when our troops evacuated their country, they left behind them a name which still inspires that people with terror. It must be confessed, indeed, that this war brought a great and lasting stain upon the British arms, for it was carried on in an unjustifiable spirit of revenge; and where that spirit is displayed in warfare, it ever leads to the multiplication of deeds of outrage and wrong. It is true, however, that the Affghans themselves had set an example of cruelty. Bloody and revolting deeds were committed by them; but they were barbarians, while those against whom they were opposed were nominal Christians, from whom better things might have been expected. "A spirit of revenge is the very spirit of the devil, and nothing can be more opposite to the temper which Christianity was designed to promote."

At the opening of the year 1843, the aspect of public affairs created great uneasiness and anxiety. In every branch of trade and industry there was great depression, attributed by some to the working of the new tariff; and by others to a groundless panic, occasioned by that measure. Whatever it arose from, its existence was clearly proved by the diminished consumption of the articles that mainly contributed to the public revenue, and there was a considerable decrease in the excise, stamps, customs, and taxes. The distress which prevailed naturally gave rise to various opinions as to the remedies to be applied. Some suggested the repeal of the corn laws; others threw the blame on the income-tax, and the other recent financial measures; some attributed the

distress to the poor-laws; and others pointed to emigration as the only means to relieve the universal pressure. All these subjects were discussed in both houses of parliament this year, but very few practical results arose from the discussions. A lengthened debate, also, took place on a plan brought forward by government to promote the education of the poor; but such was the animosity displayed against it, that it was abandoned. Several of its clauses were open to strong objections; but, on the whole, it was an enlightened measure, and calculated greatly to benefit the rising generation. A bill brought in for the endowment of additional churches and the augmentation of small livings, met with more success, and a motion to that effect was unanimously voted. The funds for these purposes were to be derived in part from Queen Anne's Bounty, and in part from the revenues of certain bishoprics, cathedrals, and other ecclesiastical establishments. Several reforms in the law were made this session; one of which made great changes in the Registration Act, and another several alterations in the law relating to defamation and libel.

Great commotions took place this year in Ireland. After the attainment of the Roman Catholic Relief Act, the Irish agitators commenced a loud cry for the repeal of the Union, and they now held what were called "monster meetings" throughout the country in furtherance of that chimerical object. So bold did they become that government at length resolved to interfere, and Mr. O'Connell and his coadjutors were arrested on charges of conspiracy, sedition, and unlawful assemblage. Their trial took place in 1844, when they were fined, and sentenced to be imprisoned for the space of twelve calendar months; but their sentence was soon after reversed by parliament, and they were liberated. In South Wales, at this time, there were also considerable commotions, and war was carried on against the turnpike system, and the vexatious tolls to which the peasantry were subjected. The toll-gates were everywhere demolished; and no sooner were they re-erected than they were again destroyed. The disturbances which took place were denominated the "Rebecca riots:" the supposed head or chief of the gate-breakers being called Rebecca: a name adopted on account of a passage in the book of Genesis, "And they blessed Rebekah, and said unto her, Let thy seed possess the gates of those which hate them."—xxiv. 60. In order to quell these riots, government sent into Wales a large body of troops, and many of the London police; and in a short time some of the most active of the rioters were captured. From this circumstance, and various other causes, the spirit of disturbance displayed in Wales towards the close of the year began to decline.

This year witnessed another war in the East Indies. It was dis-

covered that the Ameers of Sinde were preparing to attack the British, and Sir Charles Napier was sent against them. A great battle was fought at Meeanee, the result of which was that the six Ameers who governed that country, and who had ruled it with a rod of iron, were captured, and the whole of Sinde was annexed to our dominions in the East, the Sindian population everywhere expressing their satisfaction at the change of masters. Sir Charles Napier was appointed governor of Sinde, and empowered to take such measures as might appear best calculated to suppress the slave trade which had long existed in that country, and to abolish all the duties of transit that had been imposed by the fallen Ameers. In the course of this year, also, the British troops gained two decisive victories over the Mahratta forces; the consequence of which was the submission of the Mahratta Durbar to demands which had previously been made by the Indian government. This war was chiefly undertaken for the defence of the new ruler of the Mahrattas, the Maharaja Jyajee Rao Scindia, against whom the Mahratta forces had rebelled.

In the autumn of the year, Queen Victoria, accompanied by Prince Albert, visited Louis Philippe, King of France, in his own dominions, — an interesting event, inasmuch as it tended to increase the harmony which had now happily for some years existed between the two countries. After receiving a most cordial reception from their illustrious host and the French people, her Majesty and Prince Albert proceeded on their voyage to Ostend.

In the session of 1844, several acts were passed of considerable importance. One of these had for its object the regulation of railways; the other contained salutary provisions for the regulation of joint-stock companies; and a third entirely remodelled the system of turnpike-road management in South Wales, the abuses of which had given rise to the "Rebecca riots." A further alteration also was made in the Poor-Law Amendment Act, having for its chief object the preservation of morality among the poor. Another act permitted sugar, not being the produce of slave labour, to be imported into the country at diminished duties. A bill was also passed for the abolition of a number of penal acts, hitherto retained in the Irish statute-book, though they had generally become obsolete. But the crowning measure of this session was an act for the regulation of the Bank of England, and the administration of banking concerns in general. The great principle of this bill went to establish a gold standard of money: the makers of promissory notes were not to issue them without being able to pay on demand to the same amount in solid gold. All these measures were conceived in a safe and judicious spirit of reform, well suited to the circumstances of the country and the temper of the age.

During this year a governor-general was appointed to our recent acquisitions in China in the person of Mr. Davis, well known for his admirable work on China, and who had resided many years at Macao, as chief-superintendent of the East India Company. Lord Ellenborough, who had shown himself too warlike, was recalled from the government of India, and Sir Henry Hardinge was appointed his successor. Both these appointments have proved beneficial to the interests of Great Britain, as well as conducive to the happiness of the people over whose destinies those officers have presided.

The income-tax was to have ceased in 1845, but on the meeting of Parliament, contrary to the expectations and wishes of the people, it was renewed. In the same session, a bill was passed for improving and increasing the grant to Maynooth College, for the education of the Roman Catholic priesthood. Great opposition was made to this measure, for those who were ardently attached to the vital principles of Protestantism felt an apprehension that the endowment of the Roman Catholic hierarchy in Ireland, and the rapid downfal of the established church in that country, if not in England, was involved in such a measure. Their zeal being thus awakened, no exertions were spared to frustrate the plans of government; but the bill passed with large majorities. Another measure was adopted for the extension of academical education in Ireland, which was termed by its opponents — consisting of both Protestants and Romanists — "a gigantic scheme of godless education." The bill was supposed to be open to such a charge, because, on account of the great differences concerning religion existing in that country, religious instruction was wholly left out of its clauses. This divorce of religion from education was loudly protested against in both Houses, and fears were expressed that such a precedent might extend to the English Universities. The bill had been brought in to conciliate the Roman Catholics in Ireland; but, instead of this, government discovered that it only increased their asperities. For several years it had been legislating for this purpose, but at length found that this was all in vain. Alluding to a declaration of Mr. Sheil in Parliament, when commenting on this measure, Sir Robert Peel remarked that it would be said, "See how unavailing all attempts are to conciliate the Roman Catholics of Ireland. Regardless of the warnings, the feelings, and fears of their friends, they had hoped, by proposing certain measures, that they would make an impression on the Catholic mind; but instead of this, the leading Roman Catholic member gets up and declares that, unless they went ten times as far as they had yet gone, they would have an insurrection in Ireland." Other bills, passed this session, relieved the Jews from certain tests which

had previously been required from them upon their election to Municipal offices; regulated juvenile labour in calico print-works; provided for the better care of lunatics; regulated banking in Scotland and Ireland, on principles similar to those of the Bank Charter of England; and facilitated the enclosure of Commons in England and Wales.

Towards the close of this year, the British dominions on the left bank of the Sutlej were suddenly invaded by the Sikhs. This invasion was considered as a formal declaration of war on the part of the Lahore government, and Sir Henry Hardinge proceeded to take measures against the Punjaub government as a hostile state. The Sikh army, on crossing the Sutlej, invested Ferozepore on one side, and took up an entrenched position at the village of Ferozeshah, about ten miles in advance of Ferozepore, and nearly the same distance from Moodkee. A terrible battle was fought at the latter place, in which the British obtained a complete victory: the whole force of the Sikhs being driven from position after position with great slaughter, and night alone saving them from destruction. Subsequently, they were driven from their encampment at Ferozeshah, and the whole of their artillery was captured. Those who had escaped the slaughter now recrossed the Sutlej; and early in the next year, 1846, the victorious British followed them, and pressed forward to Lahore, and terms of peace were agreed on; of which one of the stipulations was the disbandment of the Sikh army. The importance of these victories was acknowledged by government, and the people of England at large, who joined in admiration of the conduct of the Governor-General, the commanders, and the troops by whom the victory was achieved. Earlier in the year, 1845, Sir Charles Napier had been employed in military operations against the mountain tribes on the right bank of the Indus, north of Shikarpoor, in which he was completely successful, and the power of the robber tribes, which had long been a terror to Sinde, was utterly broken. The moral effect of this conquest was more important than the physical; for it demonstrated to the people of Sinde that the British power was able to protect them.

For many years a repeal of the corn-laws had been demanded both in and out of Parliament. No subject, indeed, had possessed more interest in England; and, in order to effect this purpose, a corn-law league had been set on foot, and its agents sent to every part of the country to enlighten the people on this great question. Hitherto Sir Robert Peel had been decidedly hostile to a repeal of these laws; but, during the last year, the utter failure of the potato crop induced him to alter his opinion, for this calamity had created great distress throughout the United Kingdom, and some measure was necessary for its alleviation. In the session of 1846,

therefore, a bill was brought in by the premier, and carried, which made an immediate and great reduction of duties on corn, and provided for its free importation at the end of three years. Connected with this great measure was another, which passed into a law, by which the customs' duties generally were either wholly repealed or considerably reduced. But these enlightened measures contributed to procure the downfal of Sir Robert Peel as premier. Simultaneously with them, he had brought in a life-protection bill for Ireland; and the agriculturists, offended with him for the strides he had taken in free trade, united with the Whigs, who were adverse to coercion, and this bill was rejected. Sir Robert Peel then resigned; and his cabinet was succeeded by a Whig ministry, under the premiership of Lord John Russell. In his retirement Sir Robert Peel carried with him the sympathy and admiration of the people; for all felt that he had not only benefited England by these great measures, but all the world.

"The band of commerce was designed,
To associate all the branches of mankind;
And if a boundless plenty be the robe,
Trade is the golden girdle of the globe.
Wise to promote whatever ends he means,
God opens fruitful nature's various scenes;
Each climate needs what other climes produce,
And offers something to the general use;
No land but listens to the common call,
And in return receives supplies from all." COWPER.

The wisdom of these great measures for free trade was clearly manifested in the autumn, when there was again a failure in the potato crop: it had at first promised to be abundant, but before it came to perfection the root wasted away. The visitation was general over England, Ireland, and Scotland, and so great was the distress occasioned thereby, that a meeting of Parliament was called for the express purpose of opening the ports for the admission of corn free from all duty. By this measure, the famine impending over the land was averted: and ships arrived from all parts of the world, laden with corn for the sustenance of life. Yet in Ireland, where the people had for ages depended upon the potato crop for food, a dreadful famine and its consequent disease, swept away thousands of the inhabitants. The hand of charity was willingly stretched forth in England for their relief: government and the nation united in aiding that unhappy people, and, but for the timely aid afforded, the whole country would have been one vast scene of death and desolation. Would that the pen of the historian could record that this aid was followed by a nation's gratitude! But it was not so; the old animosities between Celt and Saxon still remained, and prevented them appreciating the kind motives of the

act. The year 1847 was distinguished by outrage and wrong in Ireland, to repress which coercive measures were resorted to by Parliament. This year was also marked by great commercial distress in England: numbers, who had hitherto lived in affluence, were plunged into the depths of poverty; failures occurred daily, and all classes of society felt the pressure. Various causes gave rise to this distress; one of the most prominent of which was the dangerous spirit of speculation which had for some time pervaded the whole community. Fears were entertained that a disastrous crisis in the country's history had arrived; but that DIVINE PROVIDENCE, which had hitherto protected it, continued to be its SAFFGUARD and its SHIELD; and GREAT BRITAIN IS STILL THE FOREMOST AMONG THE GREAT NATIONS OF THE EARTH.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A. D.

1837. Revolt in Canada, which was not quelled till the following year.
1838. Steam Navigation to India.
Steam Navigation to North America.
The entire line of railway from London to Liverpool and Manchester opened.
1839. War in Affghanistan.
1840. The Queen married to Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.
Partial destruction of the Tower by fire.
War with China.
1841. Birth of the Prince of Wales (November 9th).
1845. Discovery of gutta percha, the juice of an Indian tree, applicable to many important purposes, and especially to the Electric Telegraph, by Dr. William Montgomery, of the Indian Medical Service.
1847. The discovery, by Dr. Simpson of Edinburgh, of the use of chloroform in alleviating, and often entirely relieving, pain, even during the most terrible operations of surgery.

ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA.

PART II.

1848. — During this year, distress and disaffection still prevailed in Ireland. So formidable did the preachers of rebellion appear that Government brought a bill into Parliament for the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act. After much opposition, the bill passed both Houses, and its effects proved salutary. Distress and insubordination continued, it is true; but by bringing some of the leaders to justice the horrors of open rebellion were averted. The necessity for making the existing laws more stringent, and arming the Queen's government with more extensive powers, was admitted by almost every class of politicians in England.

This year is remarkable for the great and general revolt of nations against their rulers. France, Germany, and Italy were all in commotion. Dynasties were overthrown or shaken to their centre, and the deposition and flight of monarchs attested the energy with which their subjects rose to vindicate their real or fancied rights. But whilst almost every throne on the Continent was shaken by revolution, the English monarchy stood immovable as a rock. It appeared even to derive increased stability from the events that convulsed foreign kingdoms. Conspirators and anarchists assailed it; but, strong in the loyal attachment of the people, it stood firm in the awful tempest by which it was surrounded. A knot of obscure and ill-disposed malcontents sought to disturb the metropolis; but their efforts were rendered impotent by the firm attitude of the loyal and well-affected citizens, who arrayed themselves in defence of peace and order. Windows were broken and some few shops plundered; but such was the vigilance of the police, aided by the people at large, that the commotions passed off without any serious explosion.

These transactions became the subject of occasional discussion in Parliament, and led to the introduction of some new legal securities for strengthening the hands of Government. On these measures all parties were agreed; but ministers, on almost all other matters brought forward by them during this session, were left in a minority. By their opponents they were charged at the close of the session with wasting six months in nugatory legislation; but their failures were sometimes owing to the strong opposition by which they were assailed. At the same time, in

matters of finance, ministers exhibited little skill, and it was not without reason that they were considered incompetent to their task. Four budgets were brought in during the session, and not one was adopted by the House. Instead of a surplus, there was a deficiency in the revenue, and ministers had to resort to the old system of a loan to free themselves from the dilemma in which they were placed.

Although Divine Providence had protected Great Britain from the evils of intestine commotion, and from being involved in continental revolutions, yet her arms were not allowed to remain inactive. In the East we were again challenged to the contest by a foe who was thought to have been effectually subdued — the Sikhs.

The Sikhs are a religious sect, tracing their descent from a Gooroo or priest named Nânuk, who formed a kind of eclectic system of faith out of Brahminism, Buddhism, and Mahomedanism, and formed a new school of disciples in the Punjab. Naturally brave, they were rendered still more formidable by their fanaticism. The Sikhs are indeed the bravest enemies that British troops have ever encountered in India. Some years before, after a terrible battle, their army had been overthrown, and since then they had submitted to the British authority. This year, however, they again defied the British power. Under the command of Moolraj, their chief, they fought several battles with the British troops; and when the year closed the Sikhs were defending themselves against our forces in the besieged city of Mooltan, Moolraj asserting that he could hold the place for twelve months, and that he would not surrender so long as one stone of his fortress remained on another.

During the autumn of this year the cholera, that fatal scourge of mankind, again reached the shores of England. In the North it was especially manifested, sweeping into the grave its hundreds of victims. The pestilence lingered around us for several months, without exciting any fearful apprehensions; but at length in 1849 it appeared in all its terrors simultaneously, in all parts, visiting alike those spots usually considered most healthy, and those from which disease is rarely absent. The rich in their mansions and the poor in their hovels fell before it: it swept away the well-fed and well-clothed, alike with the hungry and the naked, the robust and the weak. Measures were taken by Government and local authorities to arrest its progress, but the plague continued to the end of the year before it abated. As in the year 1832, thousands died of the fatal disease, the mortality being distributed over the whole face of the country, but being greatest in the dense town populations.

1849. Distress and insubordination still existed in Ireland, and as usual, Irish affairs constituted a large part of the business of this year's session in Parliament. To restore tranquillity to the country was the first object: to save its starving people from destitution by grants of money, and to make provision for the maintenance of its poor, was the second and more difficult problem. The Irish Poor Law was a most difficult subject for Parliament to deal with; but a bill was brought in for the amendment of that which already existed, and, after much opposition, it passed both Houses. The Foreign and Commercial Policy of Government formed the subject of several debates in Parliament, but the results were rather favourable than otherwise to ministers. One of the most important measures of the session was a bill passed for the repeal of the Navigation Laws. These laws rested upon three fundamental principles: they secured to this country the monopoly of the colonial trade, the long-voyage trade, and the carrying or indirect European trade. All restrictive laws are based upon a wrong principle, and the Navigation Laws had been an obstacle to the progress of commerce; their repeal, therefore, was hailed with great satisfaction by the great body of the mercantile world. In financial measures, ministers were more successful than in the previous year. The Chancellor's budget showed a probable surplus; and though economy in carrying on the affairs of government was warmly advocated, yet ministers readily obtained all the supplies they demanded. The admission of Jews into Parliament and Parliamentary Reform underwent long discussions this session, but no measures were passed thereon. The session ended, indeed, unmarked by any important legislative changes, except the repeal of the Navigation Laws. Ministers were too weak to pass any important measures; while on the other hand the recent rupture in the conservative party prevented any combined action on the part of the opposition which would have proved formidable to Government.

The siege of Mooltan was pushed on with vigour by the British troops. By the first week in January of this year the town was in their hands. The citadel, however, still held out. But the valour of the Sikhs was of no avail. Before the month closed, Moolraj, notwithstanding his boastings, surrendered. His defence of Mooltan had been daring and desperate, but British valour and skill prevailed. The war, however, was not yet ended. The troops which had been engaged in the siege of Mooltan were marched northwards to join the grand army under Lord Gough, who was at this time opposed to two other rebel chiefs, Shere Singh and Chuttur Singh. A great battle was fought at Chillianwallah, in which, though the British remained masters of the field, they suffered severe loss.

On receiving the news of this battle, there was an almost unanimous demand for the recall of Lord Gough, and the East India Company actually appointed Sir Charles Napier Commander-in-chief of the forces and Member Extraordinary of the Council of India. He sailed from England in March; but in the meantime Lord Gough had met the combined forces of Chuttur Singh and Shere Singh at Goojerat, a place between the rivers Chenab and Jhelum, and had gained a complete victory over them. Their whole army was dispersed, and fifty-seven guns were captured: thus almost annihilating that formidable arm of the Sikh force. The British troops, under General Gilbert, subsequently passed the Jhelum in pursuit of the fugitives, and gained several minor victories. The result was that Shere Singh, Chuttur Singh, and other Sirdars surrendered themselves as prisoners; and the Punjab was annexed to the British Empire. The tide of popular opinion now turned in favour of Lord Gough: he and his army received the thanks of Parliament all parties vieing with one another in rendering them this high honour. Moolraj, who had been the chief cause of this war, was brought to trial before a special military commission, and was condemned to death; but his sentence was afterwards commuted into imprisonment for life.

During the month of May in this year, as her Majesty was riding in a carriage over Constitution Hill, a pistol was fired off by a labouring man, which witnesses declared to be designed to do her some bodily harm. On his trial he pleaded guilty, and was sentenced to be transported for seven years. The attack apparently arose more from a desire of gaining notoriety than of doing mischief to her Majesty; but it was necessary that punishment should be awarded to such a crime, whether real or feigned. During the following year, another attack was made upon her Majesty near Cambridge House, and the same punishment was awarded to the culprit, although he appears to have been of an unsound mind.

1850.— At the commencement of this year the domestic affairs of the British nation presented a tranquil and cheering aspect. The revenue was in a flourishing condition, and trade was in a prosperous state: only the agricultural interest languished, and furnished an exception to the general well-being. Some attempts were made in Parliament at legislation for the relief of the distressed agriculturists; but it was not deemed advisable to interfere with free trade, which was the alleged cause of the distress. It was thought that when free trade had been fairly tested it would prove better than protection for the farmer, as well as for the public in general; and time has proved that this supposition was correct.

Several measures passed during the session of Parliament this

year for the improvement of affairs in Ireland. That country was still in great distress, but it was more peaceable than it had been for many years. Agitation had in a great measure ceased; the chief leaders of sedition having been cut off by death or sent out of the country by Government. In previous years Parliament had made great advances of money to relieve the distresses of the people, and this year the same munificence was displayed. A bill was also passed for the extension of the Irish Parliamentary Franchise. No measures of great importance were passed this session, for the ministry was still feeble; but, though several times defeated in the course of the session, they still retained place and power.

At the close of the session the country was in a state of complete repose and tranquillity; but soon afterwards an event occurred which produced great agitation. This was the arrival of a Papal Brief from Rome, constituting an episcopal hierarchy in England and Wales. By this instrument one archiepiscopal and twelve episcopal sees were created, and the territorial limits of the new province and dioceses were distinctly marked out. Its language was as imperious as that which the Papal Court had been accustomed to use in the plenitude of its power in the middle ages. No wonder then that the instrument caused a great sensation: especially as its publication was speedily followed by an announcement of the ceremonies prescribed by Roman usage for carrying the decrees of the Pope into effect. But the Papal Court never made a greater mistake than when it issued such a bold document. Churchmen and Dissenters of all grades, the clergy and the laity, manifested such stern opposition to the aggression of the Pope, that it must have convinced the Papal Court that England would never again submit to papal domination. It so happened that the anniversary of the 5th of November occurred at the time when the ferment was at its height, and the public eagerly seized this opportunity to exhibit their contempt for the new popish hierarchy and its founders. In the place of Guy Fawkes, the images of the Pope and the English Cardinal Archbishop Dr. Wiseman, were paraded in the streets, amidst the jeers of the populace, and in many places were committed to the flames amidst thousands of spectators. This was language more emphatic than the eloquent appeals of the new cardinal.

In all the great measures which had been passed for many years, Sir Robert Peel had borne an important part. If, when prime minister, he could not carry measures which he deemed important to the welfare of his country, he was ever ready to give his support to any government, to carry them into effect, at the greatest personal sacrifice. But this year the country had to

mourn his loss. As he was riding up Constitution Hill, his horse became restive, and he was thrown to the ground with great violence. After three days' intense suffering, he died from the effects of the accident, and the whole country mourned his loss. Distinguished honours were paid to his memory, not only by the British Parliament, but by the National Assembly of France. For forty long years he had devoted his zeal and his great talents to the service of his country; and by his skill, courage, and liberal though conservative tendencies, he had gained the high esteem and confidence of all classes of his countrymen. Government wished to do him honour by a public funeral, and by granting a peerage to his family. It came out, however, that the illustrious deceased had expressly interdicted such modes of honouring his patriotic achievements; but a monument to his memory, to be erected in Westminster Abbey, was voted unanimously.

Scarcely had this great statesman been consigned to the silent tomb, when the Duke of Cambridge, a prince less remarkable for talent or energy of character than for kindness of heart and genial philanthropy, expired after a short illness. His popular manners and active operation in a wide range of charitable undertakings, had greatly endeared him to the community. Both Houses of Parliament paid him tributes of respect, and would have awarded him a public funeral; but he had left directions that his remains should be interred privately at Kew church, and rest among his fellow parishioners, with whom he had so long dwelt in harmony and good will.

In March, 1845, two ships, the Erebus and Terror, had proudly sailed from the Thames. They were manned by hardy seamen, and commanded by one of the most noted mariners in the world—Sir John Franklin. This was an expedition sent out under the auspices of the Admiralty for the purpose of discovering a north-west passage in the Polar Sea. Many attempts had been made to discover this passage, and many disasters had occurred in the search; but from the renown of Sir John Franklin, and the character and hardihood of his crew, it was hoped and believed that his enterprise would prove successful. Willingly did he sacrifice the ease he had earned by a thousand dangers, and the honours which a grateful country had bestowed, to dare the labour, perils, and privation of Arctic discovery. He was the more incited to the enterprise, because extensive discoveries had recently been made by expeditions sent out from other countries; and he considered that it would be a disgrace to this country were the flag of any other nation to be borne through the north-west passage before our own. The vessels employed in this important enterprise

were fitted up with every means that experience and science could suggest, and skill could execute. The crew had provisions for three years. Five years had now elapsed since their departure, and it had become painfully evident that some disaster had befallen the enterprise. To this very day no certain intelligence has been divulged of the fate of the intrepid navigator and his crews. Several expeditions have been despatched in search of them, but have returned without any welcome tidings of their safety. Their country mourns over them as lost. The poet's picture seems realised : —

"But hope is vain:
Ere half the fugitives the beach can gain
The fix'd ice, severing from the shore, with shocks
Of earthquake-violence bounds against the rocks:
Then suddenly, while on the verge they stand,
The whole recoils for ever from the land,
And leaves a gulf of foam along the shore,
In which whoever plunge are seen no more."

MONTGOMERY.

This year was memorable for the promulgation of a design for a great exhibition of the industry of all nations.

Exhibitions of art and manufacture had long been popular in France; and in England they had also received some attention. These exhibitions, however, were of a limited nature; embracing only articles of native industry. A design was now conceived of erecting a building in which for a time should be exhibited all the best examples of contemporary art and skill, and all the natural productions of every soil and clime, of whatever nature and degree. As this collection was to include the whole world, so the benefits were to be open to the people of every nation and of every class. It was to be a friendly rivalry of nations in the arts of peace; and it was hoped that it would strengthen the bonds of universal society by inculcating a practical sense of mutual interest and general advantage. The idea was a grand one, and by universal consent it is due to her Majesty's consort. But if his Royal Highness conceived the idea, it belonged to the people of England to carry out the design. And this they did, most nobly and effectually. Subscriptions poured in from all quarters, and architects were invited to furnish plans for a building best fitted for such a purpose. Many designs were furnished, but none met with the approval of the commissioners appointed to examine them. At length Mr. Paxton, who was not an architect, conceived a design which was so simple and effectual that it was adopted without hesitation — this was the far famed Crystal Palace, which was erected in Hyde Park, and with the form of which every one is familiar. It was a struc-

ture of fairy-like beauty, such as the world had never seen before.

The crystal edifice sprang out of the ground almost with the silence and rapidity of Aladdin's palace. The exterior was not commenced before August, and it was finished by the 31st of December. On the day following the commissioners occupied the vast space with their carpenters, painters, and artisans, and urged forward the final preparation of the world's wonder in architecture for the reception of the world's wonders of art.

The Crystal Palace resembled in some respects the forms adopted in cathedrals, one long avenue from east to west being intersected by a transept which divided the building into two portions. This transept was as it were the equator of the world in Hyde Park. The whole of the western end of the building was devoted to British and colonial specimens, while the east was occupied by the products of our foreign neighbours and Transatlantic brethren. On the western side of the transept, India, Canada, Malta, Ceylon, Nova Scotia, New England, Western Africa, the Cape, Australia, and the West Indies, displayed the peculiarities of their several climes, their ingenious manufactures, and the natural productions common to their soils: — in the eastern nave and immediately adjoining the transept, China, Tunis, Egypt, Brazil, Persia, Turkey, Arabia, and the Islands of the Sun, exhibited their magnificent offerings of nature and of art. After these followed the contributions of Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, Greece, Italy, and Holland, while France occupied a large space on either side of the nave, and also of the galleries above. Next came Austria, Belgium, Russia, the Zollverein, Germany, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden; while America occupied the "far east" of the palace, thus reversing the order of her geographical position.

Five centuries ago, the glorious old poet Chaucer related a dream in poetry, "which was not all a dream." He imagined himself standing on an island, — a structure, whose walls and gate were "all of glass,"

> "And so was closed round about
> That leaveless none came in or out;
> And of a suit were all the towers
> Subtilly carven after flowers
> Of uncouth colours, during aye
> That never been or seen in May."

He represents this Island of the Crystal Palace under the sovereignty of a beautiful lady, who becomes wedded to a royal knight; and he describes a festival celebrated in tents on a large plain, by —

"The prince, the queen, and all the rest,"

amidst a wood between "a river and a well," continuing for three months —

"From early rising of the sun
Until the day was spent and done."

1851.—It might almost be supposed that Chaucer was gifted with foresight, so exactly do these parts of his dream and the reality of 1851 with respect to the place, the palace, the regal personages, and the period of the year, agree with each other. The 1st of May of this year will be ever memorable in the annals of this country as the day on which the Crystal Palace was opened. On that day the Queen opened the exhibition in person. All classes of her Majesty's subjects, and foreigners from all parts of the world, met in harmony under the silvery covering of this wonderful palace. The general appearance of the interior, now that it was filled with the products of the industry of all nations, realised the most enthusiastic dreams of its promoters. The long centre aisle and lofty transept presented an almost endless scene of beauty and magnificence. Statues; trophies of silk, timber, and iron; strange shapes of lighthouses and astronomical instruments; models of bridges; organs; and gushing fountains, carried the eyes down the long vista, without any one of them suggesting an idea of magnitude or height too great for the building. Under the galleries the recessed compartments were lightened by the brilliancy of gold-embroidered stuffs, gorgeous satins, jewellery, arms and armour, pure white sculpture, articles of steel, iron, glass, and of every material, colour, and form. In the galleries, which were decorated with banners, there were displayed rich carpets suspended from the girders, gorgeous tapestry, and the glorious transmitted hues of stained glass. The lofty transept presented a tranquil scene of green trees and tropical plants, throwing into beautiful relief splendid statuary and a lofty fountain of glass, from the summit of which dashed down a glittering stream of cool and refreshing water. Over all these wonders of art, science, and nature, and the ever-changing panorama of the spectators, the transparent roof and sides of the building threw down a pure and uninterrupted flood of light. It was from the perfect transparency of every part of the building, that it derived its name of the Crystal Palace. During the spring, summer, and autumn of this year, thousands upon thousands flocked, not only from all parts of the United Kingdom, but from all parts of the world, to see this wonderful construction, and its still more wonderful contents; and then it was doomed to disappear. It was a sight to be viewed once only perhaps in the history of a nation,

and it belonged to the present generation only to enjoy that high gratification. And so passed away, as a shadow, this great jubilee of commerce.

It was the general expectation that, with the exception of the measure necessary to abate the pretensions of the Papal See, the session of this year would prove barren of legislative results, and that though Lord John Russell's administration was weak and ineffective, it would be suffered to linger on during this year of gaieties and festivities. As regards non-legislation, these predictions were in a great measure verified; but they were less accurate in respect to the fate of Government.

Early in the session, after a long debate, leave was given to bring in a bill to prevent the assumption by the Papal See of certain ecclesiastical titles in respect of places in the United Kingdom. On this subject there was great diversity of opinion, and ministers met with such determined opposition, not only on this measure, but on others, and especially on their financial statement, that they found themselves called upon to resign office. But it was found difficult to construct a new administration. Three successive schemes were resorted to for this purpose, but all failed; and the result was that her Majesty was compelled to recall her late ministers. Upon the resumption of office, the Whig Government brought forward the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, which, although modified in its details, met with great opposition, but eventually passed both Houses. The financial measures of the ministers after their recall met with a more favourable reception than those before propounded. The window tax was totally repealed, and the income tax was renewed for one year. Some attempts were made by the opposition to obtain a repeal of the malt tax, but they were defeated. Foreign and colonial affairs, parliamentary reform, and the admission of Jews into Parliament obtained much attention this session; but no measures were passed thereon. Alderman Salomons, a member of the Jewish community, had recently been elected member for Greenwich; but on his appearing at the table of the House, he refused to repeat the words "on the true faith of a Christian" in taking the "Oath of Abjuration," and after several discussions, it was finally resolved that he thereby forfeited his right to sit as member of Parliament. On the whole the session passed away without producing any important legislative results, except the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill; and whether that was worthy of the time and labour expended on it is still a matter of controversy. With this exception, the Parliamentary transactions of 1851 leave no signal trace on the records of history.

On the Continent, revolution and revolt was still the order of the day. The governments of France, Germany, Spain, and Por-

tugal, were all in an unsettled state, and it was feared that still more terrible revolutions would ensue. In our own happy country peace seemed established; but at the Cape of Good Hope our troops were engaged in a serious war with the Caffres. At the commencement of the war our soldiers under Colonel Somerset were defeated, and the Caffres advanced beyond the Great Fish River, and ravaged the colony; and, indeed, throughout the year they continued the war against the settlers with considerable success. To add to the calamity, the Hottentots, who had up to this period remained faithful to the British, now joined the Caffres in their predatory warfare. It was calculated that 200 farm houses belonging to British settlers were burned to the ground, and many thousand heads of cattle were driven away by the insurgents. Flocks carried off, and homesteads burned to ashes, were indeed the general features of this Caffre and Hottentot war. Protected by jungle and bush, the savages carried on their warfare almost with impunity.

1852.—The commencement of this year found the British Empire in a generally prosperous and tranquil condition. Peace prevailed in every part except in South Africa, where the war still lingered. Notwithstanding the commotions which had troubled continental nations, this country preserved peace with all. Added to this, trade was brisk and improving; the working classes were generally well employed; and the revenue showed signs of increased productiveness. Gold was plentiful, for it was continually flowing into the country in rich abundance from the gold-fields of California and Australia. One class only complained, namely, the agriculturists; but their complaints were dying away before a dawn of great prosperity.

Still, with all these causes of congratulation, the aspect of political affairs was indicative of a change. Lord Palmerston, who had been one of the chief pillars of the ministry, had, during the recess, been removed from office, and it was thought that his removal would produce a crisis in the cabinet. The anticipation proved correct. On the meeting of Parliament, ministers found themselves unable to carry on the affairs of government. Their final defeat was on a bill brought in by Lord John Russell on the reorganisation of the militia. The voted omission of the word "local" from the title of the measure was construed by his lordship into a want of confidence, and the ministry resigned.

A new ministry was formed, with the Earl of Derby as prime minister. This was what might have been termed a Protectionist Ministry; and it was feared that attempts would be made to restore the corn laws and other restrictive measures which had been swept away by the Whigs. But the days of protection

were over; the era of free trade had fairly set in, and no body of men, however powerful, could stem its onward course. There was evidently a disposition on the part of the Derby Government to achieve this object if they could; but they were obliged on their first entering upon office to state distinctly to Parliament that they did not intend to reverse the free trade policy, but only so to alter and modify it as not to press unjustly upon any one class. Their explanation was not deemed satisfactory to the House, but still on the whole it was thought that the Derby Administration would prove effective. Under its auspices the Militia Bill was passed, as were also the Income Tax Continuance Bill, and a number of other important and useful measures relating to the law courts and the colonies. The Derby Ministry, indeed, proved themselves to be men of business; but still they had not a decisive majority in the House, and after the prorogation of Parliament, recourse was had to a general election.

In the meantime an event occurred which filled the hearts of every British subject with sorrow. This was the almost sudden death of the great Duke of Wellington. He, "the hero of a hundred fights," was stricken down by the hand of death, and the whole nation, as one man, mourned his loss.

> "Hush! the Dead March sounds in the people's ears.
> The dark crowd moves; and there are sobs and tears.
> The black earth yawns; the mortal disappears:
> Ashes to ashes, dust to dust;
> He is gone who seem'd so great.
> Gone: but nothing can bereave him
> Of the force he made his own
> Being here, and we believe him
> Something far advanced in state,
> And that he wears a truer crown
> Than any wreath that man can weave him.
> But speak no more of his renown.
> Lay your earthly fancies down,
> And in the vast cathedral leave him."
>
> TENNYSON.

On the opening of the new Parliament, her Majesty in her speech thus alluded to this mournful event:—

"I cannot meet you for the first time after the dissolution of Parliament without expressing my deep sorrow, in which I am sure you will participate, that your deliberations can no longer be aided by the counsels of that illustrious man whose great achievements have exalted the name of England, and in whose loyalty and patriotism the interests of my throne and of my people ever found an unfailing support. I rely with confidence on your desire to join with me in taking such steps as may mark your sense of

the irreparable loss which the country has sustained by the death of Arthur, Duke of Wellington."

The high achievements of the Great Duke in the battle-field are recorded in the previous pages of this history. As a warrior, he was the greatest man of his age, not excepting his great antagonist Napoleon Bonaparte. As a statesman also he was great. As a patriot, no Englishman ever surpassed him for honesty and uprightness. What he conceived for the good of his country he exerted all his talents and all his influence to bring to maturity. Thus it was with the Roman Catholic Relief Bill. Long had the noble Duke resisted that measure; and hence in the year 1829, when his grace was premier, the nation was astounded when, in the speech from the throne, Parliament was recommended to "take into their deliberate consideration the whole condition of Ireland, and to review the laws which imposed civil disabilities on his Majesty's Roman Catholic subjects." Having seriously deliberated upon this subject, the Duke resolved upon his course, and pursued it with characteristic firmness and straightforwardness. The bill was introduced by Mr. Peel into the Commons, and moved in the Lords by the Duke of Wellington, and was carried triumphantly. It was on this occasion that the noble Duke uttered these ever memorable words: "I am one of those who have been engaged in war more than most men, and unfortunately principally in civil war; and I must say this, that, at any sacrifice, I would avoid every approach to civil war. I would do all I could, even sacrifice my life, to prevent such a catastrophe." Civil war was impending over the country; and, in order to avert this dreaded evil, the noble Duke, against his own preconceived notions, conceded the boon of Catholic Emancipation. A great outcry was raised against him and his colleagues by all classes of Protestants, for his supposed inconsistency; but as time rolled on this feeling was softened down. Now that his career was at an end, all parties in Parliament and out of Parliament were anxious to do him honour. A public funeral was voted by Parliament. On the 18th of November immense masses filled the streets of the metropolis, to see the bier of the illustrious dead pass by: every house, every window, every house-top was crowded with persons anxious to pay their last tribute of respect to the memory of England's greatest son. "And who will forget," said Lord Derby in the House of Lords, "the effect within St. Paul's Cathedral, when, amidst solemn and mournful music, slowly, and inch by inch, the coffin which held the illustrious dead descended into its last long resting place? I was near enough to see the countenances of many of the veterans who were companions of his labours and his triumphs, and was near enough to hear the suppressed sobs

and see the hardly checked tears, which would not have disgraced the cheeks of England's greatest warriors, as they looked down for the last time upon all that was mortal of our mighty hero. Honour, my lords, to the people who so well knew how to reverence the illustrious dead."

In this great national act all parties were united as one man. No sooner, however, had it been accomplished than the war of parties commenced in Parliament. Long and angry discussions took place on the subject of free trade: one party seeking to confirm the free trade policy recently adopted, and ministers evidently watching an opportunity to return to some kind of protection. This discussion showed the weakness of Government, and when the financial policy of the ministry was made known, they were unable to carry out their scheme. It proposed to make great alterations respecting the income tax, malt tax, house tax, tea duties, hop duty, and other minor branches of revenue; and although the Chancellor's speech was at first applauded, such a storm of opposition set in against the measure, that the Derby Administration resigned. A new ministry was formed at the close of the year, at the head of which was Lord Aberdeen.

In France this year there was a great change in the form of government. That country had for several years been in an unsettled state. In 1848 Louis-Philippe had been hurled from his throne; a Republic had been proclaimed; and a new constitution had been promulgated, with a president at its head, elected for four years. The first president was Louis Napoleon, a nephew of the emperor, whose memory was still dear to many throughout the country. True to his uncle's principle, ambition, Louis Napoleon had from the time he was elected President aimed at attaining a still higher name, and he was this year, by the almost universal voice of the people, created Emperor. This fact was made known to both Houses of Parliament by ministers, but it provoked no discussion: the universal wish in England was that the change which had taken place might not, as in former times, provoke war, but result in peace and good-will among both nations.

It was during this year that the marvellous discovery of gold in our Australian colonies — the tales of which resembled the fabled glories of the Arabian Nights — received a tangible demonstration. Several ship-loads of the precious metal arrived in the Thames; and other ships arrived shortly after. The reports of the abundance of gold in Australia, together with these tangible proofs that it did really exist there in large quantities, gave rise to what may be termed a gold mania. Hundreds, nay thousands, flocked to the seaports, and left their native country for the purpose of seeking their fortunes in Australia. The needy and the affluent

alike left kindred and friends in quest of gold. The emigration this year was immense; and still, as the years roll round, that far-off land receives many thousands of British-born subjects; and it requires no prophetic eye to foresee that Australia will ere long be one of the brightest jewels in the British crown.

English merchants had for some time suffered much from extortions and ill-usage at Rangoon. So often and so loud were the complaints, that the Governor-General of India came to the conclusion that the treaty of Yaudaboo, made at the conclusion of the first Burmese war, had been violated. Accordingly he sent an officer to demand reparation. But the ships which accompanied the Governor's messenger were fired at from behind a stockade, and it became evident that the Burmese meant war. No concessions were offered by the King of Ava, and a hostile expedition was prepared to enforce our claims and obtain redress. This expedition was under the command of General Godwin, who quickly captured Martaban, and afterwards stormed and took Rangoon, the maritime capital of the Burmese Empire. Prome and Pegu subsequently fell into the hands of the British; and the year closed with these achievements.

1853.—The war continued in the year 1853. Its chief incidents, before peace was concluded, were the predatory attacks of marauding chiefs, not only on our own troops, but on the inhabitants of the Burmese provinces. Several expeditions were undertaken against these robber chiefs, and Mea Toon, their stronghold, was taken by storm and destroyed. This was in the month of March; and in June the Court of Ava made the concessions demanded by the Governor-General of India, and peace was proclaimed. All British subjects held in captivity at Ava were liberated, and the navigation of the river Irrawaddy declared free to the merchants and people of both countries, for the purpose of trading; and thus ended the second Burmese war.

Parliament met on the 10th of February, and the business of the session was of a multifarious character. Many measures of great importance and complexity were originated, elaborated, and carried by the Aberdeen Ministry. Among these were the Naval Coast Volunteer's Bill, and the Pilotage and Mercantile Marine Bills. Several law reforms were carried into effect, and the bequeathed Charities of England received the attention of the legislature. The admission of the Jews into Parliament was again advocated, but nothing was settled on this vexed question. Altogether, however, this session was one of the most fruitful that had been known for a long period. A great reduction of the taxes tending to cramp the operations of trade and industry had been made during its sittings,

and an important measure passed for the future government of India.

During this year the hostilities between the British and Caffres at the Cape of Good Hope were brought to a close. General Cathcart, commander-in-chief of our troops at the Cape, by his energetic measures, forced to submission Sandilli, the most active chief of the Caffres, and the most formidable of our opponents. But how long the lesson taught to the savage chieftains of that country will be remembered remains to be seen. Treachery is their characteristic; and vigilance is ever needed as a safeguard for the colonists.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A. D.

1848. The cholera again visits England. Revolution in Paris. Louis Philippe dethroned.
1849. A great victory gained over the Sikhs in India.
1850. An Industrial Exhibition designed by Prince Albert. Death of Sir Robert Peel.
1851. The Crystal Palace opened. The window-tax repealed. Discovery of the North-West Passage by Captain Mac Clure.
1852. Death of the Duke of Wellington. Louis Napoleon elected President of France. Large arrivals of gold from Australia. War in Burmah.
1853. The Burmese conquered. War between Russia and Turkey. A great Industrial Exhibition in Dublin.

ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA.

PART III.

At the commencement of the year 1853 the retrospect of the past and the anticipations of the future wore a smiling aspect. Food was cheap and abundant, and trade and commerce flourished. As the year passed on, however, the horizon darkened. The harvest was scanty, and trade languished: strikes in the manufacturing districts, which are generally indicative of distress, prevailed on every hand. But that which, at the close of this year, riveted the attention of all men, and bade fair to give to the past year a melancholy prominence in history, was the probability of its being the last of the great peace which had followed the wars of the French Revolution.

In her Majesty's speech at the close of the session are these words: —

"It is with deep interest and concern that her Majesty has viewed the serious misunderstanding which has recently arisen between Russia and the Ottoman Porte. The Emperor of the French has united with her Majesty in earnest endeavours to reconcile differences, the continuance of which might involve Europe in war. Acting in concert with her allies, and relying on the exertions of the Conference now assembled at Vienna, her Majesty has good reason to hope that an honourable arrangement will speedily be accomplished."

This language of the British Queen forms a proper introduction to a notice of one of the most fearful wars in which Great Britain has ever been engaged,—a war in which happily her old hereditary enemy, France, fought steadfastly and valiantly by her side, as her dearest friend, until the victory was won and the blood-stained sword again consigned to its scabbard.

In the Middle Ages, the guardianship of the Holy Places in Palestine had given rise to many sanguinary wars. To wrest them from the hands of the Infidel Turk, Crusade after Crusade had been set on foot. Hosts of Christian warriors went forth, in order to obtain possession of the tomb of the common Redeemer of mankind. Those days had long passed away, and the country of Palestine, with all its sacred places, are still under the Mohammedan power. But there was this difference in the conduct of that power: whereas in the Middle Ages, when Christian warriors marched to the rescue of the Holy Places, the Christian population of Palestine were trodden under foot, now they are treated with

mildness and benignity. There had, however, recently been a contest between the Greek and Latin monks in Palestine, about shrines and relics and the Holy Places. It was a mere contest of religious parties for supremacy in matters of religion, in which the Turkish Government took no part. But the Greek Church was essentially Russian, and the policy of Russia had for ages been a policy of aggression. Taking advantage, therefore, of this obscure quarrel between the Greek and Latin monks, Nicholas, the Emperor of Russia, true to the policy of his ancestors, claimed to protect the orthodox, that is the Greek, religion in Turkey. In effect, he demanded to rule over that section of the Sultan's servants who professed the Greek religion. This demand was naturally rejected, and the autocrat poured his troops into Wallachia. Here they were met by the Turks under Omar Pasha, and, in a pitched battle fought at Oltenitza, were defeated.

The success of Omar Pasha's troops roused the military pride of Russia: to be beaten by Turks was considered a disgrace. But Russia soon had her revenge. The Turkish fleet lay at anchor in the harbour of Sinope, and they were suddenly attacked by a Russian squadron, and destroyed. Four thousand Turks fell by this act of treachery. This dreadful slaughter caused a profound sensation in Europe. It was felt more keenly in England and France, because at the time when this foul deed was committed their combined fleets were lying in the Bosphorus for the purpose of protecting the Turkish capital and coasts. The attack looked like defiance of the naval strength of the two powers; but the result was that the Black Sea, often called a "Russian lake," was taken possession of by the fleets of England and France, and not a Russian ship was allowed to spread its sails thereon.

1854. — Such was the state of Europe and the Eastern question at the opening of the new year. All hopes of peace had vanished. The Czar had been lavish, in his negotiations with England and France, of his professions of peaceable views; but the massacre of Sinope had produced universal sorrow and indignation, and had destroyed all confidence in his assurances. At this time the Western Powers had summoned him to lay down arms; but the entrance of the allied fleets into the Black Sea precluded the hope that he would return a favourable answer. The whole country, therefore, prepared for war, and France was eager for the din of battle.

The anxiety caused by the state of our foreign relations was increased by a scarcity of corn. The food of Europe was deficient, and this had an effect upon all classes; only the agriculturists flourished, the price of corn being so high that they received more than ordinary profit on their capital and labour. In this state of affairs

the meeting of Parliament was anticipated with great interest by all ranks of the community; especially as it was feared that ministers hesitated to make war with Russia.

Parliament opened on the 30th of January. Her Majesty in her opening speech expressed regret that the differences existing between Russia and the Ottoman Porte had not been settled, but still expressed a hope that the united efforts of England and France might restore peace to the world. At the same time her Majesty stated it would be necessary to increase our naval and military forces, lest war should prove inevitable.

The question of peace or war formed the chief topic in Parliament after the opening of the session — some advocating peace, but the majority of members giving their opinion in favour of war. But the question was soon decided. In March the suspense in which the nation had been kept for a whole year terminated: a royal message to Parliament proclaimed to England and the world that there should be war with Russia. To this message all parties in Parliament and out of Parliament responded cheerfully. It was known and felt that great sacrifices must be made to sustain such a war; but almost every man from the bottom of his heart coincided with the dread resolve. The massacre of Sinope had raised the spirit of the nation, and hence the war became one of the most popular in which England had ever been engaged. Supplies were readily voted in Parliament, and throughout the length and breadth of the land the people offered themselves as soldiers and as sailors to fight the battles of their country.

This parliamentary session was stamped with peculiar features. Thirty-nine years had passed away since there had been any session to be compared with it in character. It was essentially a war session. The results as regards domestic measures were therefore very barren. At its close, also, the Government was left in diminished influence and efficiency, several changes having taken place in the ministry during the session.

In the meantime war had commenced. An English army under Lord Raglan and a French army under Marshal St. Arnaud had been landed on the shores of the Bosphorus. The relation in which these two armies stood to each other was well expressed in an order of the day which the French marshal issued before quitting France:—

"France and England, rivals in other times, are now friends and allies. The two countries have learned to esteem each other while combating. United, they command the seas, and the fleets will feed the army while famine is in the camp of the enemy. Soldiers! the eagles of the Empire resume their flight, not to menace Europe, but to defend it. Bear them on once more, as

your fathers bore them before you; and, like them, let us all, before we quit France, repeat the cry which so often led them to victory, — 'Vive l'Empereur.'"

For nearly two months British and French troops successively landed at Gallipoli, Constantinople, or Scutari. These troops carried with them all the enormous *matériel* which is the distinctive characteristic of modern warfare. The depôts on the shores of the Hellespont and Bosphorus were to be considered as the first move in that game of giants of which no one could see the end. Constantinople became in fact the base of all subsequent operations.

While the troops of England and France were moving towards the scene of strife, those of Turkey and Russia were struggling with each other. The Turks bravely drove the Russians out of Citate, and all attempts to regain it were vain. The Russians subsequently crossed the Danube, and in a short time all the small forts in the Dobrudscha fell into their hands, and they were enabled to lay siege to Silistria. But it was in vain that they poured all their forces against this stronghold of the Turks. Each time they attempted its capture they were hurled back by its devoted defenders with immense loss. Under the command of two English officers, Lieutenant Nasmyth, and Captain Butler, the Turks fought like lions, and the Russians were compelled to raise the siege. In the last assault the brave Captain Butler fell mortally wounded: he was the first British soldier that fell in the war, and he was one of the bravest and the best. The Russians retreated to Bucharest.

The firstBritish cannon was fired by the navy in April, in revenge for an insult offered by the Russians in firing upon a flag of truce. Odessa, that great Russian emporium of corn in the Black Sea, was bombarded, and most of its batteries were silenced and destroyed. As for the Russian fleet, it had become useless. Shut up in the harbour of Sebastopol, it dared not set sail from thence, for the English and French fleets were masters of the Black Sea. It was in vain that battle was offered: the Russian navy, which had destroyed the Turkish fleet at Sinope, remained under the guardianship of the guns at Sebastopol until, in the progress of the war, the Russians were compelled to sink or burn them to the water's edge. Not a Russian ship engaged in that massacre escaped the general destruction.

By the middle of May, the French and English armies were in sufficient force and organisation to take the field whenever they might be required. At a council of war, it was resolved to form a camp at Varna. It was while they were at Varna that the siege of Silistria was raised, and hence their services were not required in that quarter. Most gladly would they have marched thither, for

an enemy appeared among them against whom it was in vain to contend. The valleys in which they were encamped were pestilential in the highest degree, and they were swept off by hundreds and by thousands. As their dead comrades were being carried to the grave, the living prayed to be led out against the enemy rather than die the inglorious death which was so fatally decimating their ranks. About the same time, also, the Russians were dying by thousands in the Dobrudscha, which is the Scythia of the ancients, — a dreary and pestilential wilderness, where neither brooks nor springs of water are found, and the air in the heat of summer is fraught with pestilence. Added to this, as they were retreating to Bucharest, they were overtaken by the Ottoman forces at Giurgevo, by whom they were signally defeated.

Negotiations for peace still went on, but without effect. Austria attempted to mediate, but in vain; and that power was too cowardly or too treacherous to enter the field with the allies, or the war might probably have been soon concluded. Hence, as the continuance of war was inevitable, it was resolved to invade the Crimea. It was necessary that Russia should be shorn of some of her mighty strength; and nowhere else could so telling and severe a blow be dealt as at Sebastopol. It was that stronghold which gave the Czar the dominion of the Black Sea; and in its harbour was the fleet which was always ready to threaten the approaches to Constantinople and the Bosphorus. Great was the joy of the troops when the order came for re-embarkation. All gloomy despondency vanished: they were going to face the enemy —a prospect always cheering to French and English troops. Men scarcely able to drag one weary limb before another suddenly gained strength, and the greatest activity prevailed throughout the two camps. In one day, 40,000 English and French warriors, with a powerful artillery, were precipitated upon a hostile coast, — a coast where tens of thousands of Russian soldiers were drawn up in order of battle to dispute their onward progress.

The allied forces landed at Eupatoria on the 14th of September, the anniversary of the entrance of Napoleon into Moscow. In four days they were ready to march upon Sebastopol. As yet no enemy except a few Cossacks had been seen; but it was soon discovered that the Russians had formed a strong camp on the heights to the south of the river Alma. On the morning of the 19th orders were given to march, — the French forming the right, being supported by 7000 Turks, and the British forming the left wing, the post of danger and honour. The spectacle presented from the heights was magnificent; the whole army advanced as if for a review. There were neither enclosures nor villages to impede their progress, and they moved forwards in perfect silence. Some

Cossacks were seen in the distance; but on this day no enemy disputed their onward movement. Beyond the river Alma, however, on the hill-sides were seen dark moving masses of men and glittering lance-heads and bayonets. This was the Russian army under the command of Prince Menschikoff.

The allies bivouacked for the night on some rising ground south of the river Bulganac, which winds beneath cliffs, from the summit of which a gentle declivity, broken by ravines, leads down to the Alma. The French rested near the sea, next to them the Turks, and the English further inland,—the three camps forming a line nearly three miles in extent, at right angles with the sea-shore. Between the opposing armies there was a distance of about five miles: the fires of the allies shone out brightly on the hill-side, and seemed to be reflected back by the Russian fires on the opposite heights. But the night was cold and damp, and the watch-fires were mere flashes, which gave little heat and comfort to the weary soldier.

Morning broke on the 20th of September—the day of the battle of the Alma — amid a busy camp, a buckling on of accoutrements, and a harnessing of horses. Again the allies set forward on their march in the order they had observed the day before. The French came first into contact with the enemy, — their task being to turn the flank of the Russians, while the English attacked them in the front. It was one o'clock before the French had made much progress. At that time their columns were seen struggling up the hills where the Russians were posted covered by a cloud of skirmishers, whose fire seemed most deadly. Once they paused, but it was only to collect their skirmishers; for as soon as they had formed, they ran up the hill at the *pas de charge*, and at once broke up the Russians, who fled in disorder before them. In the meantime our troops had been exposed to a heavy Russian fire, which they did not return: they were ordered to lie down, and for a short time they remained passive. It was no sooner reported, however, that the French had crossed the Alma, than the order to advance was given. At the command, up rose those serried masses, and, passing through a fearful shower of round case-shot and shell, they dashed into the Alma, and floundered through its waters, which were literally torn into foam by the deadly hail. And now commenced one of the most bloody and deadly struggles in the annals of war. Led by their brave commanders, the British troops struggled up the heights in masses, and though mowed down by the murderous fire of the batteries by fifties and by hundreds, they halted not till they had reached the batteries and captured them. "Highlanders," said Sir Colin Campbell, ere they came to the charge, "I am going to ask a favour of you: it is,

that you will act so as to justify me in asking permission of the Queen for you to wear a bonnet. Don't pull a trigger till you are within a yard of the Russians." Nobly was this wish responded to: the Highlanders charged, and took the battery before them at a bound. Nor were the guards less valorous. They had stormed the right of the battery ere the Highlanders got into the left, and British soldiers now crowned those heights which the flying masses of Russians had occupied. Prince Menschikoff had proudly boasted that he would drive the forces of the allies back into the sea; but his own columns were obliged to turn their backs upon their terrible foes. Throwing away their arms and their knapsacks, and all that might impede them, they broke away from their ranks, and fled; while the French and English artillery followed them with a murderous fire. Had there been a sufficient force of cavalry on the part of the allies, scarcely a man among the Russians could have escaped death or captivity.

The battle of the Alma was won, but it was won with a loss of nearly 3000 killed and wounded on the side of the allies. The loss in officers was very great, for the Russian soldiery had orders to aim especially at those in command. For this they had ample opportunities, as the British officer exposed his life in this terrible battle-field equally with the private soldier. The loss of the French was not equally great with the British, for the part they had taken in the battle was not equally hazardous, but still the number of their slain and wounded proved to the world that they had sustained their ancient character for valour. But the loss of the allies was not to be compared with that of the Russians. That is stated at about 8000 men; and nearly 900 more were taken prisoners. The Minié rifle did its terrible work in this battle: like an angel of death it swept down its thousands. So also did the bayonet; for the British soldier did not wait for the fire of the enemy, but hastened to close with him in a death-like struggle for victory. Mournful was the duty which devolved on the survivors. Several days were employed in burying the dead, and the wounded required all the tender care and skill which humanity could bestow. And it is pleasing to observe, that both French and English exhibited the utmost sympathy towards their fallen foes: they buried their dead and they bound up their wounds, as though they had been "brothers in arms."

After performing the mournful duty of burying the dead, the allies marched towards the northern face of Sebastopol. But they found themselves inadequate to accomplish the reduction of that stronghold in the direction of the north, and hence they turned towards the south in the direction of Balaclava. They reached the valley of Balaclava on the 26th of September, a por-

tion of the fleet having already arrived in the harbour. On the day after their arrival the French and English battalions took up their positions in the valley north of the town, and on the bleak heights above Sebastopol. At this time Marshal St. Arnaud was dead; and General Canrobert had succeeded to the command of the French troops. As the allied armies showed themselves on the heights, a great panic prevailed in the menaced city. Steamers and boats rapidly traversed its harbour, long lines of carts, carriages, ladies on horseback, and crowds of pedestrians were seen hurrying along the road which leads into the interior of the country. It was manifest that all kinds of property were being removed from the town. No doubt they feared that the city would be taken by storm, and it was thought by many that it might have been; but our commanders thought it would be barbarous to storm a town filled with women and children, and hence they resolved upon its reduction by a regular siege.

The siege of Sebastopol is one of the most memorable in the annals of history. Its difficulties are thus described by General Canrobert: — "The difficulties which we meet with are of two kinds: those which result from the nature of the soil, the solid stratum of which, already deficient, diminishes as we approach the place; and those resulting from the number and calibre of the pieces of artillery which the enemy plants against us, almost in a right and very extended line. In this respect, the resources which he draws from his vessels stationed in the port, men as well as materials, are almost inexhaustible; while ours, although augmented by the loans which we make from the two fleets, are necessarily limited. The 68-pounders, the 80-pound howitzers, and the 12-inch mortars, are, in short, almost the only artillery upon which we can rely. This position renders the siege of Sebastopol one of the most laborious operations which have been met with for a long time." But in spite of all these obstacles the siege-works had so far advanced as to enable the besiegers to open fire on the 17th of October. Before the batteries of the allies commenced firing, however, the Russians opened a furious cannonade, and from the very commencement of this terrible siege up to the day when the allies were victorious, they were enabled to return fire for fire. On this first day of bombardment the French general reported: "The place kept up the fire better than was expected. The circle is of such a formidable development, and comprises guns of such large calibre, that it can prolong the struggle."

It would require a volume to detail all the incidents and particulars of this memorable siege. It is a siege made up of assaults and counter assaults; of sallies made by the enemy and repulses; of hand to hand fights; of struggles to overcome natural diffi-

culties by the pick-axe; of wearisome months of existence in the trenches; of deaths by famine, sword, and disease, and all the evils to which such a mode of warfare is incident. To relate all these would be tedious; but there are two episodes in the war this year which must ever form a part of English history.

The bombardment was still proceeding in the southern front of Sebastopol when the Russians were preparing an attack upon our lines with their army in the field. Their object was to force our position at Balaclava, to place us between two fires in front and rear, and to force us to abandon our enterprise. The battle of Balaclava, indeed, which occurred on the 25th of October, was made up of five struggles or contests: first, the capture of a series of earthen redoubts from the Turks by the Russians; second, the heroic repulse by the 93rd Highlanders of a furious cavalry charge by the Cossacks; third, the defeat by the British cavalry of a much larger body of Russian cavalry; fourth, the mistaken, but wonderful onslaught by a handful of British light cavalry against a complete army of Russian artillery, cavalry, and infantry; and fifth, a dashing charge of the Chasseurs d'Afrique, which finished the work of the day and left the allies victors. The charge of the light cavalry was one of bold daring and high achievement, such perhaps as has never before been recorded in the annals of war. This charge was, indeed, a matter of astonishment to French and Russian eye-witnesses, of unpleasant controversy among British officers, and of admiration to all who admire courage under perilous circumstances. Practically a few hundred horsemen attacked a complete army drawn up in position,—their leaders interpreting an order which they received from Lord Raglan that they were to advance through the Russian ranks and recapture the guns which, early in the morning, they had taken from the Turks. An order to a British soldier must be obeyed, and, therefore, no sooner had the leaders of the light brigade received this supposed order, although they questioned its propriety, than they prepared to put it into execution. There were only about 670 horsemen in the brigade; but it was known what a British soldier could do, and they resolved to perform the enterprise. Down they went through the valley in the midst of a volley of round and grape shot vomited forth by batteries placed on the hill-sides right and left, and passing through a cloud of Russian riflemen occupying the intermediate ground. On they advanced, and when within fifty yards of the cannon which they were to capture, they were encircled in a blaze of fire from the front, right, and left. Still, on they went. They galloped through the battery itself, cutting down the artillerymen as they passed along. But what an unequal contest! One sword was measured against twenty, aided by muskets, pistols, rifles, and

cannon. But now came their greatest difficulty and danger: how to get back again to their lines was a question. Between them and their wondering comrades were 5000 Russian cavalry; but there was no hesitation in that heroic little band. Sword in hand, they cleft their way back through the Russian hosts,—every horse and every rider being a special mark for their numerous opponents; and when at length a small remnant reached the allied position, the cheer which the men gave at the thought of having ridden over a Russian battery and pierced through a phalanx of Russian cavalry, was only softened by the recollection that many of their comrades were left dead behind them. The only marvel is, how one escaped; but nearly two hundred *did* return untouched by fire or sword. It was a fight of heroes.

The battle of Balaclava was only one among a series of occurrences arising out of the system of tactics adopted by the Russian general Menschikoff. Finding that the allies were gradually enlarging and strengthening the siege-works, he adopted the plan of harassing them in the rear, of attempting to disturb their security at Balaclava, and of wearing them down by imposing a necessity for watchfulness. The two battles of Inkermann were links in this chain. The minor battle of Inkermann occurred the day after the battle of Balaclava. A force of about 7000 men moved out of Sebastopol and attacked the left of the second division. But they paid dearly for their boldness; although only 1500 British were engaged in their repulse, the Russians were driven back with a loss of 600 men. Those who escaped were literally chased over the ridges down towards the head of the bay by the muskets and artillery of the British. On this day about 1000 of the enemy were either slain or taken prisoners.

But the Russian was an active antagonist; and he had masses of infantry still unscathed. At this time, indeed, there was a visible accumulation of troops, not only in Sebastopol, but in the valleys and plains north and east of the plateau. The allies saw and remarked this visible gathering of Russian troops, but not a man amongst them suspected the tremendous nature of their preparations for battle. Day after day Russian troops poured in, and it was evident that an attack would be made; but still it was not feared. At length, however, the storm burst over the British from the heights of Inkermann.

At a council held on the 3rd of November, it was resolved by the Russian generals that an attack should be made upon the allies two days afterwards. The Russian army was to advance towards Inkermann, take possession of the fortified works crowning the heights, and surround the plain or valley of the Tchernaya. Having accomplished this, they were next to attack the eastern

defence-works of the allies on the plateau and near Balaclava. At a concerted period, also, a sortie was to be made from the south-west of Sebastopol. The plan was well laid, and everything was done which would aid the enterprise. Priests were brought to bless the troops; raki, a spirituous liquor, was given out in large quantities to inflame their courage; and, to crown all, two of the Grand Dukes, Michael and Nicholas, travelled all the way from St. Petersburg to witness their prowess.

The morning of the 5th of November came. It was a dull, misty, murky, damp morning: moreover it was Sunday, a day when the Russians conceived that the allies would not be prepared to fight. During the night bells had been heard ringing in Sebastopol, and multitudes of voices had been heard chanting, as if for victory. It was not known what was meant by these apparent rejoicings. Some supposed that the Czar had reached Sebastopol, and that the people were welcoming his arrival. They were soon undeceived. Early in the morning a rumbling sound in the valley was heard by the outlying pickets of the 55th regiment; it was a conveyance of artillery from Sebastopol to Inkermann by way of a concealed road under the heights whereon the British were encamped. Still the British were ignorant of what it meant. Six o'clock arrived before the truth was revealed. At that time the Russians appeared in force. Some of the pickets were captured; others hastened to alarm the camp. Dense masses of Russians soon reached the crest of the hill; but by this time the second division of English troops had been aroused; and, armed with the Minié rifle, they swept down the Russians by hundreds. But still the Russian masses pressed on with fierce discordant yells; and, being presently aided by their numerous artillery and covered by a dense cloud of skirmishers, they reached the heights of Inkermann. And now commenced one of the most fearful struggles recorded in the annals of war. The morning was so dark with mist and rain, that our commanders could not see where to direct their attention. Every company and every man had, therefore, to do their best, according to their own individual judgment and valour. Fearful were the struggles which took place, and especially round an earthwork called the Sand-bag Battery. On reaching the crest of the hill, the Russians took this battery; but it was only for a time. It was retaken by the Grenadiers at a bound. Again did the Russians attack it, and again were they repulsed. Still the fight thickened. Every minute brought up fresh masses of Russians; and though all the disposable force of the British hastened to the scene of strife, their foes still numbered ten to one. Fearful was the conflict. Officers and men met their death on every hand. But the British still kept their ground, meeting their foes breast to

breast with fearful energy. Prodigies of valour were performed by all ranks. Each man felt himself a hero, and well sustained his character. There was no retreat: every man would have died rather than have turned his back. And so the battle raged hour after hour; for still, as one mass of Russians was defeated and driven back, another appeared. The forces of the British seemed at one time to be in danger of annihilation. But they had in the distance brave, generous, and faithful allies. No sooner did Lord Raglan send to the French commander for assistance, to repel this dreadful attack, than aid was afforded. With the light of battle on their faces, the French appeared on the scene just as the struggle had gained its height; and, rushing onwards, they fell upon the Russians. The victory was soon won. The charge of the French and British combined was irresistible. Every musket, rifle, and cannon, wrought certain destruction. Clear gaps were made in the living mass of Russians by the falling of a whole line of men by one ball. The repulse of the enemy was most signal and rapid, and though later in the day they attempted to regain their lost fortune, it was only to add to their defeat.

"The battle of Inkermann," says an eye-witness, "admits of no description. It was a series of dreadful deeds of daring, of sanguinary hand-to-hand fights, of despairing rallies, of desperate assaults in glens or valleys, in brushwood glades and remote dells, hidden from all human eyes, and from which the conquerors, Russian or British, issued only to engage fresh foes, till our old supremacy, so rudely assailed, was triumphantly asserted, and the battalions of the Czar gave way before our steady courage and the chivalrous fire of France."

Deep was the interest with which the list of killed and wounded in this dreadful battle was read in England, and many were the tears shed over that list. It contained a long muster-roll of illustrious names; for nearly all the commanders of divisions and brigades engaged in the fight were either killed or wounded. But every name in that list, whether officer or private, may be termed illustrious, for all had done their best to repel the foe. Of English and French, the killed, wounded, and missing, amounted to 4400. The Russians left as many on the field, and carried away at least as many more during the battle. And thus ended the battle of Inkermann, one of the most deadly ever witnessed since war cursed the earth.

With this battle the campaign for this year may be said to have closed. Taught by experience, the Russians felt that these attacks were vain, and therefore the allies were left to prosecute the siege unmolested, except by sorties from the garrison. But the allies were called upon to endure many hardships during the

winter; for wearisome days and months were spent in the trenches, where they were exposed, not only to the fire of the enemy, but to the rigours of a severe climate. But, cheered on by hope, they prosecuted the siege with vigour, every day working their way closer to the forts of the enemy — the two Redans, and the Mamelon and Malakoff, against which all their energies were chiefly directed. In November the fleet in the Black Sea encountered a most fearful storm, a storm which brought pitiless destruction to ships and mariners, and strewed the coast with fragments of vessels and disrupted cargoes of valuable merchandise. The storm also swept over the British camp, blowing down the tents in all directions and rendering the stern rock on which they were pitched nearly bare of all shelter for the troops. Many soldiers were found dead in the trenches or on the heights; the sick and wounded were destroyed wholesale; the horses died of cold and starvation; and the whole sanitary condition of the army became seriously deteriorated. The Russians suffered even more than the allies: thousands perished on the march over the exposed steppes of the Crimea and Southern Russia. The sword had slain its thousands: famine and cold slew their tens of thousands.

War was carried into the Baltic and White Sea, as well as the Black Sea. A large fleet, under the command of Sir Charles Napier, sailed from Spithead in March, towards the Gulf of Finland, where the Admiral established a rigorous blockade. Cruisers were stationed off the different ports along the coast, so that no Russian vessel could show itself in the Baltic. A French fleet joined the English in this enterprise, and great expectations were entertained as to the successes of their united operations. These expectations, however, were not realised; though many Russian merchant ships were captured; a powerful battery at Eckness was destroyed; and Bomarsund was bombarded and captured. This last enterprise was one of great importance; more than 200 guns and 2335 prisoners were captured. This victory was obtained by the fleets, aided by French land forces; but after the fall of Bomarsund nothing was done by the allies in the Baltic. In the White Sea, the fortified towns of Novitska, and Kola, the capital of Russian Lapland, were bombarded and destroyed.

Parliament met on the 12th of December, and the war was the principal theme of the session. The mismanagement thereof by ministers was loudly condemned, and the censures heaped upon them made them henceforth more active in sending out fresh troops and the necessary provision for their sustenance. A heavy responsibility rested upon them, for the country was ready to furnish them with whatever amount of money they required.

The property and income tax had been loudly declaimed against in former years, but this year the people suffered an increase of this obnoxious impost without a murmur. This session seems to have been entirely devoted to war purposes. Bills for embodying the militia and for the enlistment of foreigners were passed. But still Lord Aberdeen's ministry did not give satisfaction to the people. There was a warlike spirit in England which perhaps had never been so universally felt before, and the country was resolved to have a Government which would carry out their views to the utmost. Hence Lord Aberdeen was compelled to resign, and Lord Palmerston was placed at the head of affairs, he being, it was supposed, the only man who could carry on the war with vigour and bring it to a happy conclusion.

1855.—As the year 1855 opened great activity prevailed in carrying out the operations of the war. Every day our seaports sent forth ships laden with men and materials for carrying on the siege. There was no lack of soldiers. A military ardour filled the breasts of British youths in all parts of the United Kingdom, and hundreds were daily enlisted. It seemed as if England had suddenly become, like Greece and Rome of old, a military nation. And it was pleasing to observe that, as the spring advanced, our soldiers were made more comfortable. The sick and wounded in the hospitals of Scutari were tended by nurses, who tenderly watched over them; and those in the trenches or on the plateau had everything they could desire. Public munificence and private bounty furnished them with all they needed. A Patriotic Fund was established, to which all classes, from the Queen on her throne to the peasant in his cottage, gave liberally. In order to facilitate the transit of necessaries, as well as material of war, a railway was constructed from Balaclava to the trenches—a proof that the allies had made sure their footing in the Crimea. Great was the surprise of Turk and Tartar when they saw the English excavators levelling hill and valley with a rapidity that was truly marvellous; and when at length they saw that iron monster the steam-engine breathing fire and smoke, and traversing the lines laid down with the fleetness of a race-horse, their surprise was unbounded. This railway was of great utility during this year's campaign. It enabled the allies to bring up such an enormous amount of shot and shell to the trenches as never could have been conveyed thither by ordinary modes of transit. It was a new feature in war, but it was effectual.

During the spring of this year the allies received additional strength from an unexpected source. While Austria and Prussia stood aloof from the war, Sardinia nobly came forward and sent a valuable contingent of hardy troops to aid in the contest. This

heroic determination at once raised that state, both in the estimation of Englishmen and in the diplomatic formalities of negotiations and conferences, to a level with the first-class powers.

The allies, therefore, now consisted of England, France, Sardinia, Turkey. In conjunction they carried on the siege with vigour; each aiding the other as though they had been one nation. The numerous enterprises which they undertook, the various sorties and attacks of the Russians which they repulsed, and the efforts they made to take the Russian stronghold, all show that the bonds of their union were cemented by mutual respect and confidence.

In the midst of this terrible war, a startling event occurred. The Czar Nicholas, the autocrat who had inherited an aggressive policy from his predecessors, who had concealed that policy with wonderful sagacity from all but a few far-seeing statesmen,—he, the Emperor of all the Russias, whose wicked ambition had given rise to the gigantic struggle that was going on between his numerous hosts and the allies,—the great Czar Nicholas, died. Almost his last words were, "Tell Fritz to remain constant to Russia, and not to forget the words of his father." Fritz was Frederick-William King of Prussia, who doubtless understood the message. The death of Nicholas was made known within a day to half the capitals in Europe by means of the electric telegraph; and it was hoped, but in vain, that his successor Alexander would immediately enter into negotiations for peace.

The war still raged. In April a second bombardment took place, which continued many days in succession; but the defenders of the town returned so fearful a fire, and were so active in repairing the injuries done by the fire of the allies, that it proved abortive. The failure of this attack, however, only increased the activity of the besiegers. Nearer and nearer they worked their way towards the defensive works of the besieged, so that their next attack might prove more effective. Before the third bombardment took place, General Canrobert, commander of the French forces, resigned, and General Pelissier, a man of extraordinary bravery and skill, succeeded him in the command. His first exploit was the capture of the Mamelon, which was effected in June. This was an important step towards the taking of the town, for the Malakoff only intervened to prevent the entrance of the victors into Sebastopol. Against the Malakoff and the Redan, the besiegers therefore exerted their utmost strength and skill. An attempt to take them by storm was made in June, but in this attempt the allies were repulsed. They were not yet near enough to bombarb those strong places with effect, and again the pickaxe and shovel were worked with extraordinary vigour, to enable the

besiegers to plant their guns in nearer proximity to these far-famed works. In the midst of this last act but one of the great drama of the capture of Sebastopol, died Lord Raglan, who had so well and nobly fought in the service of his country. He was succeeded by General Simpson, who with General Pelissier planned the last and final assault.

This bombardment commenced on the 5th of September, exactly twelve months from the day the allied armament began to sail from Varna to the Crimea. The French attacked the Malakoff, and the English the Redan. Three days did the roar of cannon continue. Shells and shot of enormous weight were vomited forth from the mouths of hundreds of guns upon the devoted city, every shot and shell carrying with it death and desolation. At length on the 8th, the storming columns left the trenches. And this time the French at least were successful. The Malakoff was captured. In their efforts against the Redan, although the storming columns did all that men could do, the English were repulsed. But this was not essential to the capture of the town. The Malakoff commanded every part of the south side of the devoted city; and in the course of the night Prince Gortchakoff led his troops across a bridge of boats in the harbour to the north side of Sebastopol, leaving the south in the hands of the victors. Thus ended the great siege of Sebastopol—a siege which had been in progress during forty-nine weeks; which had involved the construction of 70 miles of trenches; in which had been employed 60,000 fascines, 80,000 gabions, and 1,000,000 sand-bags; and during which, more than 1,500,000 shells and shot had been fired at or into the town from the mortars and cannon of the besiegers. It was a siege unexampled either in ancient or modern history.

While this great siege was proceeding, events of importance were taking place in rapid succession in other parts. In the direction of Eupatoria, the Turks under Omar Pasha, aided by the French and English, attacked the Russian forces on several occasions, and obtained easy victories. The combined French and English fleets, in concert with a French and English army, captured Kinburn at the mouth of the Dnieper; and at the time Sebastopol was taken they threatened the fort of Oczakoff, the batteries of which they eventually destroyed. Nearer the grand scene of operations a battle was fought by the allies, in which the Sardinians took a noble part. This was the battle of the Tchernaya, or Traktir bridge. In this direction the Russians attacked the Sardinian lines with fearful impetuosity, but the attack was nobly repelled by the Sardinian soldiers, and the French coming to their assistance, a great victory was obtained.

In the sea of Azoff our fleets committed great devastation. Many towns were captured, and some destroyed. Kertch, Yenikale, Fort Paul, Anapa, and Sondguk Kale were evacuated by the Russians, and granaries and stores were destroyed by the allies at Arabat, Genitchi, Berdiansk, Mariopol, and Taganrog. In the Baltic, the French and English fleets, during this year, bombarded and destroyed Sveaborg, and blockaded Cronstadt. The English fleet was this year under the command of Admiral Dundas, and great exploits were anticipated under his direction of the Baltic operations, but they were doomed to be disappointed. In the White Sea similar events took place as in the Sea of Azoff. Several towns were captured or destroyed, and the Russian forces made no attempts at defence. Everywhere, in all points of the Russian dominions, disaster and defeat were witnessed. One signal success only this year attended her arms, and that was coupled with circumstances which made it of a doubtful character. In Asiatic Turkey a large Russian army had laid siege to Kars, which was defended by the Turks under the command of General Williams. Most heroically did the garrison of Kars hold out against their numerous opponents. Assault after assault was defeated, and on one occasion with a loss to the Russians of 2500 killed, and 5000 wounded; and it was only when all provisions and all hope of succour failed that the heroic defenders of this devoted city surrendered; and even then it was under circumstances which did them honour. "General Williams," said the conqueror Mouravieff, "you have made yourself a name in history, and posterity will stand amazed at the endurance, the courage, and the discipline which this siege has called forth in the remains of an army. Let us arrange a capitulation that will satisfy the demands of war, without outraging humanity." Mouravieff proved himself to be one of the most skilful, as well as the most persevering and humane, of all the Russian generals engaged in this war.

After the capture of the south of Sebastopol the allies took possession of its ruins, and made them their winter quarters. Although it was a heap of ruins, yet it was better winter quarters than the trenches; and the winter was spent in comparative comfort. As it passed away great preparations were made in England, France, and the Crimea for the final destruction of the Russian power in the Black Sea. Had the war continued, a great effort would have been made by the allies during the next campaign to have achieved what they had designed—the subjugation of the whole of the Crimea. But in the midst of this din of war and preparations for its continuance, there were still hopes of peace. Although Austria would not join in the deadly conflict, she offered to become a mediator, and her offer was accepted by the allies.

For a long time the Czar and his counsellors held out against the terms offered, but at length, taught wisdom by experience, all that the allies demanded was granted. These terms comprised "four points." The first abolished the Russian protectorate in the Danubian principalities; the second freed that important river the Danube from all political obstructions; the third closed the Black Sea against all fleets except a few light Turkish and Russian vessels, which were to act as a maritime police or coast-guard; the fourth, relating to the Christian subjects of the Porte, placed those Christians under the protection of all the contracting powers, without any preference to the Russian government. Over and above these four points, the allies reserved to themselves the right of proposing special conditions on minor but yet important matters.

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A. D.

1854. England and France declare war against Russia. Odessa bombarded. The battles of the Alma, Balaclava, and Inkermann. Sebastopol besieged.

1855. Death of the Emperor Nicholas of Russia, and accession of Alexander. Sebastopol captured. Surrender of Kars to the Russians. Industrial Exhibition in Paris. Queen Victoria visits the French Emperor.

ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA

PART IV

The desire for peace was not universal. The capture of Sebastopol, indeed, increased the military ardour of the nation. There existed a general impression, that by a further perseverance in the war, the discredit cast upon the British arms, by the failures and mismanagement which had preceded the fall of the stronghold of Russia in the Black Sea, would be redeemed. That government, however, was resolved on peace was made known on the opening of Parliament. In her speech, the Queen, having adverted to the high achievement of the allies, and assured the House that efforts would still be made to give vigour to the operations of the war, added—"I have deemed it my duty not to decline any overtures which might reasonably afford a prospect of a safe and honourable peace. Accordingly, when the Emperor of Austria lately offered to myself and my august ally, the Emperor of the French, to employ his good offices with the Emperor of Russia, with a view to bring about an amicable adjustment of the matters at issue between the contending powers, I consented, in concert with my allies, to accept the offer thus made, and I have the satisfaction to inform you that certain conditions have been agreed upon, which I hope may prove the foundation of a general treaty of peace."

That treaty was signed at Paris in March; and, although the nation had desired the continuance of the war, when it was felt that the power of Russia had been humbled the people rejoiced at the return of peace. In May there was a general thanksgiving, and notes of gratitude to the Almighty Disposer of events for the restoration of peace were fervently uttered in every church and chapel throughout the kingdom. In both Houses of Parliament votes of thanks were passed to the army, navy, and marines employed in the operations of the war; but it is remarkable that only one officer, General Williams, was rewarded by Parliament for his skill and bravery. That heroic soldier, for his noble defence of Kars, received, through a message from the Crown to both Houses, a pension of 1,000*l.* per annum for his distinguished services. To have rewarded other officers would have been invidious; for the war had not brought more honour to them than it had to those in the ranks. Indeed, had it not been for the bravery of the common soldiers, defeat instead of victory would have been inscribed on their banners; and as a reward for that

bravery, many were raised from the ranks, while thousands received medals from the hands of the Queen herself, for their devotion in battle.

The final success of the Crimean war increased the popularity of ministers. Throughout the session they met with no marked opposition. The legislative measures of the session were numerous, and of a very diversified character. Many of them related to domestic improvements in towns, districts, ports, and docks; but others had reference to provident societies, bankers' composition, mercantile law, the marriage of dissenters, reformatory schools, and divorce and matrimonial causes. Several measures of greater importance were negatived; among which were bills for the Abolition of Church Rates, and for the regulation of Grand Juries and Poor Laws in Ireland. As the war had created an expenditure exceeding the revenue, it was met by a loan of 5,000,000*l.*; government resolving not to propose new taxes, but to make up the deficiency by borrowing. The session closed on the 29th of July, by a speech read by commission, which chiefly related to the treaty between the allies and Russia, the tenor of which proclaimed to all the world that, while the British people were ready to combat for the oppressed, they were desirous of living in peace with all nations.

The power of the British was this year exerted on behalf of the oppressed in India. By a treaty concluded in the year 1801, the East India Company engaged to protect the sovereign of Oude against all enemies, foreign and domestic. On his part the sovereign of Oude bound himself to establish such a system of administration as would conduce to the prosperity and security of the lives and properties of his subjects. This treaty had been faithfully observed by the British rulers in India, but for some years the sovereign of Oude had been faithless to its terms. His troops had been permitted to plunder the villages for their support, and had become a scourge to the country they were employed to protect. Warning had been given that if these troops were not restrained from their lawlessness, the British government in India would take the people of Oude under its own protection. That warning was unheeded, and Wajid Ali Shah was invited to enter into a new engagement, whereby his territories should be vested exclusively in the East India Company, with an understanding that ample provision should be made for the dignity, affluence, and honour of both himself and family. This offer was rejected with contumely, and the British government had but one alternative—namely, to take possession of Oude. Oude, therefore, was declared to be annexed to the British empire, and British troops entered the country from Agra and Cawnpore, and took posses-

sion of its capital, Lucknow, without resistance. At the same time, the territories of the Rajah of Sattara, as those of the Rajah of Berar had already been in 1853, were incorporated with the British dominions.

Towards the close of this year, England was involved in a war both with Persia and China. By articles of agreement executed in 1853, between her Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of the Shah of Persia, and the Prime Minister of the Persian government, the Shah engaged not to send any troops to Herat unless the Herat territory should be invaded by a foreign army; and in that case, if troops *were* sent, they were to be withdrawn as soon as the invaders should retire. This convention was entered into in order to secure the independence of Herat, it being the "Gate of India," and the only route by which an invading army could make its way upon the Indian frontier from the regions of the north-west, or Persia. In the year 1855, Dost Mahomed, who occupied the throne of Cabul, advanced against Candahar and took possession of it, and the Persian government made this the pretext for sending an army to besiege Herat, which was captured. This was followed by a declaration of war on the part of Great Britain against Persia. But that war was brief. At the approach of the British troops under Sir James Outram, ably assisted by Brigadier-General Havelock, the Persian armies fled in dismay, and negotiations were entered into by the Persian government, which in the following year resulted in a treaty of peace.

The war with China arose from a different cause. A lorcha, or small vessel, named the Arrow, with a British register, and bearing the British flag, was boarded by a Chinese force in the Canton waters, and twelve out of a crew of fourteen were seized and pinioned, and put on board a war junk. This was a direct infraction of a treaty entered into in 1853, whereby a registered ship bearing the British flag was to have full liberty of entering any of the harbours of the British colony of Hong Kong. Mr. Parkes, therefore, the British Plenipotentiary at Hong Kong, demanded an apology of Yeh, Governor of Canton, which was refused. This was followed by hostile proceedings. All the forts in the Canton river were captured by the British, and numerous war junks were burned to the water's edge. The right by treaty of the British Plenipotentiary to enter Canton was demanded; but nothing further of importance occurred this year, as Admiral Seymour was obliged to wait for reinforcements, and until their arrival he took up a defensive position.

Parliament met on the 3rd of February, 1857. It was opened by commission, and the Queen's speech announced that this

country was at war with Persia and China. Complaints were made by the opposition that the legislature had not been consulted either when war was proclaimed against Persia, or when peace was about to be established against that country. Lord Palmerston declined to enter into any discussion on that matter; but he could not so easily set aside a debate on the war with China. Motions were made in both Houses, deprecating the interruption of amicable relations between her Majesty's subjects and the Chinese authorities, and that moved in the Commons was carried by a majority of sixteen. This led to a dissolution of Parliament; for after voting the necessary supplies, and passing an income-tax of sevenpence in the pound for the current year, on the 21st of March it was prorogued, and soon after writs were issued for a general election.

The result of the election was favourable to ministers. The name of Palmerston was a rallying cry at almost every hustings in the kingdom, and that cry obtained a powerful phalanx of government supporters. Lord Palmerston's Cabinet, indeed, triumphed over a coalition of all its numerous opponents. Its apparent security, however, proved the means of its downfall; for its members threw away their commanding position by errors and negligence, of which their opponents were not slow in taking the advantage.

The new Parliament met on the 7th of May for the despatch of business, on which occasion the Queen's speech contained a distinct reference to the treaty of peace with Persia, and the mission of the Earl of Elgin as Her Majesty's Commissioner, with a fleet and troops, for the purpose of entering into negotiation with the Emperor of China. As in the session of 1856, no great legislative measures were either passed or brought forward by government—those passed chiefly relating to transportation and penal servitude, enclosures of waste lands, industrial schools, probate and letters of administration, and joint stock companies. Parliament was prorogued on the 28th of August.

In the meantime great and stirring events had taken place in India. The ease with which the annexation of Oude had been accomplished misled the British government of India as to the best means of securing the acquisition. The natives of Oude were a nation of warriors. Not less than 70,000 of these warriors were in the Sepoy battalions of the Company's service, and it was to some of these battalions, with only a few hundred British, that the safe keeping of the forts of Oude were intrusted. The annexation of Oude to the British empire had, notwithstanding the grievous complaints of its oppressed people, produced a feeling

of deep and dangerous discontent among the fierce landowners, who, with their numerous bands of retainers, were hostile to a rule which would curb their license, and stop their oppressive exactions. But this was not the sole origin of their discontent. For some time a conspiracy had been forming in the north of India against the continuance of the British dominion in the East. That conspiracy had its origin among the Mahomedan chieftains, who resolved to employ the name of the King of Delhi, a feeble and imbecile old man, in an attempt to establish their ancient rule — a rule which had been lost to them since the year 1765, when the Dewanny of Bengal was ceded to the English. During the war with Persia, it was discovered that a traitorous correspondence had been maintained between the Courts of Delhi and the Shah, and that efforts had been made to induce Dost Mahomed, King of Cabul, to prepare for the invasion of the Punjaub whenever the revolt of the Bengal army should leave that part of the British dominions defenceless. Efforts had been constantly made to induce the Bengal Sepoys to betray their trust and revolt against the British government, but those efforts had hitherto failed. Accident, however, now brought about what secret plotting had failed to accomplish. When Oude was annexed to the British dominions, it was represented to the Sepoys that there was a settled purpose on the part of the Anglo-Indian government to insult their faith, and compel them to embrace the doctrines of Christianity. The mine was thus laid, and it only required the application of the match to explode the loyalty of a hundred years, and to convert it into the blackest treason. It so happened that in this state of affairs the Enfield rifle was, at the beginning of this year, introduced into Bengal for the use of the troops, and, as greased cartridges were necessary for its effective use, it was intended they should be supplied with the new weapons. This was the match that exploded the Sepoys' loyalty. It was reported that the cartridges about to be supplied were greased with a mixture of cow's fat and hog's lard. This composition was offensive both to the Hindoo and Mahomedan Sepoy — the former regarding the cow with religious veneration, and the latter looking upon the hog with abhorrence. Hence the whole native army became disaffected towards the British government. Its overthrow was resolved upon; and as there was in existence an ancient Hindoo prophecy that, in the hundredth year after its foundation by the battle of Plassy, the rule of the East India Company should cease, the time was deemed favourable for such a consummation.

It was in May, at Meerut, that the rebellion commenced; and it soon spread through all the native forces of India. After

committing great excesses at Meerut, the mutineers took possession of Delhi, the ancient capital of the Mogul emperors of Hindostan, where every European within its walls were massacred. As soon as the British government received the news of this rebellion, every precaution was taken to prevent its extension. The native troops were deprived of their arms and ammunition at Lahore, Ferozepore, Peshawar, and other places, by which the rebellion was shorn of some of its terrors. At Lucknow, however, the mutineers took possession of the city and laid siege to the British residency; while at Cawnpore the native troops, under the command of the ever-infamous Nana Sahib, slew men, women, and children, without mercy, and but few Europeans escaped the massacre. But there was an avenger at hand. The Persian war being over, Brigadier-General Havelock arrived at Bombay from the Persian Gulf with two European regiments—the 74th Highlanders and the Queen's 64th—and taking the command, with about 1000 British troops and 150 Sikhs, he fell upon the rebels under Nana Sahib, near Cawnpore, and defeated them. The Nana retired to Bithoor, and Havelock marched after him, but on arriving there he found the palace of Bithoor on fire and the enemy gone. Havelock returned to Cawnpore, but, having received reinforcements, he again set out in pursuit of the rebels. In nine days he fought and won four battles. Twice he essayed to relieve the garrison in the presidency of Lucknow; but, although he defeated the enemy in its vicinity, he was compelled, by the death of many of his troops from cholera, and from the exhausted condition of those still under his command, to withdraw to Monghowur. Being again reinforced, Havelock once more advanced against the rebels. Victories were obtained by him at Cawnpore and Bithoor; but Nana Sahib had by this time collected such a numerous force round Cawnpore, that he was compelled to act on the defensive. In September, however, having a third time received reinforcements, Havelock again advanced to the relief of the besieged in the residency, and, sword in hand, his troops cut their way through the enemy's forces on their route and in the narrow streets of Lucknow, and saved them.

On reaching the residency, however, the brave and chivalrous Havelock found that it was impossible to carry away the sick and wounded, with the women and children, through the numerous mutineers who swarmed in and around Lucknow, so that he was compelled to wait for further relief. That relief was at hand. On the news of the rebellion reaching England, Sir Colin Campbell was sent out as Commander-in-Chief of the forces of India. Sir Colin arrived at Calcutta in August, and, having made his

preparations, in November he advanced upon Lucknow, stormed it, and drove the enemy before him like a flock of sheep. Those living among the besieged were rescued, but many had been slain, and many more had perished from want and disease. After the storming of Lucknow, the brave Havelock himself expired from exhaustion and disease, having just before his death received the tidings that he had been created Knight of the Bath. Two days after his decease he was created a baronet, a title which was afterwards conferred on his son, who was also in the army, while Parliament granted a pension to the hero's widow.

Towards the close of the year Sir Colin Campbell gained several victories over the rebels, but when the year died out they were still everywhere in arms. In the meantime Delhi had been carried by assault by a British force under General Nicholson and Brigadier Jones, and the old Mogul monarch had been taken prisoner. In this assault the King's son and grandson, who had been participators in the mutiny and in the massacre of the Europeans at Delhi, were both slain, and by his capture and their deaths the Mogul dynasty terminated. At Mooltan, in the Lower Punjaub, also several native infantry regiments were defeated and disarmed; so that at the close of the year there was a well-founded hope that, though thus rudely assailed, the British power would still hold rule in India.

In January 1858 an interesting event occurred in the royal family. This was the marriage of the Princess Royal of England, then only in the eighteenth year of her age, with Prince Frederick William of Prussia. The interest felt by the nation in this union was spontaneous and universal; and it was celebrated by splendid illuminations and great rejoicings among all classes of society.

An extraordinary session of Parliament had been opened by the Queen in person at the close of the preceding year, for the purpose of passing a Bank Issue Indemnity Bill, rendered necessary by the failure of certain joint stock banks and large commercial firms, which had produced an universal feeling of distrust in the mercantile world. This done, the house adjourned to the 4th of February. On its re-assembling, addresses of congratulation were voted unanimously to her Majesty on the marriage of her royal daughter. On this subject all parties were agreed; but an incident occurred about the same time which was fatal to the Cabinet. An attempt had been made upon the life of the Emperor of the French, and this attempt was said to have been devised by some refugees in England. Such was probably the fact; but neither the Government nor the people of England were responsible for the misdeeds of these refugees. Louis Napoleon, however, called upon the English government to provide a

remedy for such refugee conspiracies; and unfriendly comments were made on the character and policy of the English people in a congratulatory address presented to the Emperor by certain officers in the French army. Obedient to his dictates, and wishing to smoothe down the angry passions of these French officers, Lord Palmerston brought in a Bill to amend the law relating to conspiracy for the commission of murder, but on its second reading an amendment was moved to this effect: that while the House was deeply concerned at the recent attempt made upon the Emperor's life, and while it expressed its detestation of such an atrocity, it nevertheless regretted that her Majesty's government had not made some reply to the despatch received from the French government relative to the subject before the House had been invited to amend the law of conspiracy. This amendment was carried; and, as it was considered to be a vote of censure, Lord Palmerston and his colleagues resigned office.

The Earl of Derby now became Premier, while Mr. Disraeli became leader in the House of Commons as Chancellor of the Exchequer. The first act of the new ministry was to enter into a friendly correspondence concerning the "painful misconception" which had arisen from the attempt on the life of Louis Napoleon between the English and French governments, which correspondence ended in a spirit friendly and honourable, and in a manner conducive to the interest and happiness of both nations. The business of this session was of an important character. Its two chief measures were Acts by which the power of the East India Company passed into an executive, named by the House of Commons; and by which Jews were first permitted to sit as members of Parliament, being simply required, on taking their seats, to take the oath of allegiance, omitting the words "on the true faith of a Christian." The other measures of the session related to the amendment of the laws; the improvement of agriculture, of towns and districts, of internal communications and navigation; and for special objects and private regulations, such as joint stock companies, copyright of designs, friendly societies, local governments, art unions, reformatory schools in Ireland, and the municipal franchise. As regards legislation, the Derby ministry, indeed, proved themselves more competent than their predecessors; and their ability, combined with their popular manners, reconciled both the House of Commons and the country at large to their conservative administration.

Parliament was prorogued in August. At that time the rebellion in India was well nigh crushed beneath the feet of the British power. Having rescued the garrison in the residency, Sir Colin Campbell prepared for the final conquest of the city of Lucknow,

and the dispersion of the rebels there congregated. Meanwhile they were employed in preparing for a vigorous defence. But it was in vain. Every stronghold was stormed, and Lucknow was captured. The two great centres of insurrection—Delhi and Lucknow—having been taken, and the concentrated masses of mutineers which they contained been scattered far and wide, it only remained to crush the fugitive groups who had entrenched themselves in some of the strongholds of central India and Rajpootana, and other bodies roaming about the country for purposes of plunder. This was no easy task, but it was successfully accomplished. One by one their strongholds were stormed and captured, until the rebels were completely subdued, and peace was restored to India.

During this year, also, the war with China was brought to a successful issue. On his arrival, Lord Elgin demanded satisfaction of the High Commissioner Yeh for the outrage committed on the registered ship Arrow, but in vain. Having, therefore, made preparations with Baron Gros, who had been sent to Hong Kong as ambassador from the Emperor of the French, the English and French forces entered Canton, took possession of the Treasury, and captured Yeh himself, with other chief authorities of the city. Canton was held by them as a material guarantee until the Chinese Emperor complied with the demands of the allies. To enforce these demands Lord Elgin and Baron Gros, with the plenipotentiaries of America and Russia, sailed up the Peiho with a fleet of nineteen vessels, and, after capturing some batteries about eleven miles from the mouth of the river, arrived at Tientsin on the road to Pekin. Here they were met by two commissioners from his celestial Majesty, and a treaty of peace was concluded between China and Great Britain; one of the principal articles of which was that there was to be a British and Chinese minister at the Courts of London and Pekin, who were to transact business with the Chief Secretary of State at each Court on a footing of equality. After concluding this treaty, Lord Elgin proceeded to Japan, where he succeeded in obtaining a treaty, which threw open its hitherto jealously-closed ports to British commerce.

At the opening of the year 1859 the principal subjects of public attention were reform in Parliament, and the state of foreign politics with reference to France, Austria, and Italy. The question of reform had for some time been suffered to rest; but at the period of the downfall of Lord Palmerston's Cabinet, it had again become the question of the day. On taking office the Derby ministry pledged itself to bring in a Reform Bill. That pledge was redeemed early in the session of this year. It was introduced by its chief framer, the eloquent and gifted Chancellor of the

Exchequer, and the measure proposed to extend the franchise to persons having property to the amount of 10*l.* a year in the funds, Bank and East India stock; to those who had 60*l.* in savings' banks in boroughs; to recipients of pensions in the naval, military, and civil services; to dwellers in portions of houses where an aggregate rent of 20*l.* per annum was paid; and to undergraduates of the Universities, ministers of religion, and members of the legal, scholastic, and medical profession. It further proposed to add several members to certain counties, and to give members to several towns hitherto unrepresented. On the other hand, by its provisions, certain places which had hitherto sent two members, were, from their non-importance, only in future to send one, and county votes were to be withdrawn from freeholders in towns. These were the principal features of the conservative Reform Bill. The measure was liberal and enlightened; but it was prejudged, and foredoomed to become abortive. Opposition, indeed, so sternly opposed the bill, that after ten long nights of hot controversy, on a division government was left in a minority.

On the defeat of ministers they appealed to the country. Parliament was first prorogued, and then dissolved. The election which followed was one of the most exciting which had taken place for some years. Both parties strove to obtain the preponderance, and gold was freely circulated to secure voters. The result was favourable to ministers, for it added twenty-five seats to their numbers; but, surrounded as they were by difficulties, this addition was not sufficient to preserve their bark from foundering in the rough sea of politics.

The new Parliament was opened by the Queen on the 7th of June. The chief topic of her Majesty's speech related to a war which had been declared between France and Sardinia on the one side, and Austria on the other. The King of Sardinia had drawn the sword for an extension of power over Italy; the Emperor of Austria was doing battle to sustain the Hapsburg supremacy over his Italian states; and Louis Napoleon was fighting for an "idea,"—that is, for the aggrandisement of France and his dynasty. Every effort had been made by the Derby government to prevent this war; but Lord Malmesbury, the Foreign Secretary, had committed a grave error in reproving the King of Sardinia for thus rushing into battle. It is true he reproved both Francis Joseph and Louis Napoleon, but his severest reproofs were directed against Victor Emmanuel. This was in opposition to the general feeling of the British nation. As the Italian people were engaged in throwing off a yoke under which they had long groaned, the sympathy of the English went with them; and hence, on the address in reply to her Majesty's speech, which embodied the

views entertained by government in reference to the belligerents, an amendment was moved, which was carried, and ministers resigned.

Lord Palmerston now again became Premier; Lord John Russell becoming Foreign Secretary, and Mr. Gladstone Chancellor of the Exchequer. After their accession to office, as far as legislative results were concerned, this session was remarkably unfruitful. During its sitting but few measures were added to the Statute Book, and those few were of little importance. Scarcely any Acts were passed, indeed, except those necessary to give effect to the financial arrangements for this country, and to carry on the legislative business of the nation.

Parliament was prorogued on the 13th of August. At that time the war in northern Italy had terminated, and it was announced in the speech from the throne that her Majesty would send a plenipotentiary to a Congress that had been projected for the settlement of affairs in Italy. The result of the war in Italy was glorious for the arms of France and Sardinia; but it was brought to a close in a manner both sudden and mysterious. Louis Napoleon had declared that he would not sheathe the sword till Italy was free, from the Alps to the Adriatic; but after gaining a great battle at Solferino over the Austrians, he had an interview with the Emperor of Austria at Villafranca, and entered into a treaty with him, which left Venice under Austrian rule, and the great Hapsburg fortifications—the famous quadrilateral, and keys of Italy—in the possession of Austria.

This year war again broke out with China. Mr. Bruce, brother of the Earl of Elgin, was appointed ambassador to the Court of Pekin, under the terms of the recent treaty; but when he and the French ambassador arrived at Shanghai, they found that their reception at Pekin would be evaded. Accordingly, after much fruitless negotiation in June, the two plenipotentiaries advanced to the Gulf of Pecheli, escorted by a squadron of gun-boats and other small vessels, under the command of Admiral Hope. This squadron, however, was obstructed in its passage up the river by formidable defences, and preparations were made for forcing a passage. The gun-boats were placed in position, and the first barrier was removed; but on a sudden, while advancing to the second barrier, a tremendous fire opened from masked batteries, and, notwithstanding the desperate gallantry of the admiral and his officers and men, he was obliged to retire with great loss. His loss, indeed, was out of all proportion to the numbers engaged; and the result was most mortifying, as the only chance of ultimate success was to convince the Chinese that the British arms were invincible.

This year witnessed the commencement of a noble patriotic movement. As Europe was belligerent in spirit, it was deemed necessary to take precautions for the safety of England. Accordingly volunteer rifle corps sprung up on every hand, and government wisely lent its sanction and gave its aid to their members. The result of this movement is a noble and well-trained army of riflemen, able and willing to defend the hearths and homes of England, should foes dare to invade their sanctity.

Parliament was opened in 1860 by the Queen, on the 24th of January. In her speech, her Majesty adverted to the postponement of the projected Congress on the Italian question; adding, that she would endeavour to obtain for the people of Italy freedom from foreign interference by force of arms in their internal concerns. The speech also stated, that her Majesty was in communication with the Emperor of the French, concerning an extension of commercial intercourse between France and England. On the Chinese question it was announced that her Majesty was preparing, in concert with the Emperor of the French, an expedition for the purpose of obtaining redress for the outrage on the British and French forces at the Taku forts, and a fulfilment of the stipulations of the treaty at Tientsin.

During this session, the two Houses of Parliament were brought into collision on the Paper Duty. A bill was passed in the Commons for its abolition, but when it came before the Lords it was rejected. A dispute arose as to whether the Lords possessed the right of exercising the power of ignoring bills relating to taxation; but it was acknowledged in the end that they had from time immemorial exercised that power, and the discussion which arose on the subject in the Commons was allowed to drop, without any formal resolution being passed thereon. As was expected, Lord John Russell brought in a Reform Bill; but the veteran reformer was not more successful than the conservative Disraeli. His bill neither gave satisfaction to the House nor the country, and after lengthened debates it was withdrawn. It was universally acknowledged, indeed, that the Derby Cabinet Reform Bill was more enlightened, and better calculated to strengthen the foundations of the constitution, than that introduced by the Liberals. Its withdrawal was felt as a great relief; for as long as it remained in suspense, it was regarded as an incubus, and an impediment to other measures of greater importance. Among these measures were the fortifications of dock-yards and arsenals; the reorganisation of the Indian army; the commercial treaty of France; the taking of the census in 1861; and the regulation of the finances of our Indian Empire. Numerous bills for domestic improvements of considerable importance were also passed this session.

More than two hundred private bills, relating to railways, were also among its fruits. It is true that a considerable part of this session was expended fruitlessly on measures which became abortive, but it is equally true that it was neither barren nor unfruitful. Its chief results were its extensive fiscal and commercial reforms, which are of the highest importance to all classes of society.

Parliament was prorogued on the 28th of August. The speech announced that pacific overtures had been made by her Majesty's envoy to the Imperial Government at Pekin and had been rejected, and that the combined naval and military forces of France and England, which had been sent to the Chinese Seas, had been ordered to advance to Pekin for the purpose of supporting the just demands of the allies. The allied troops had reached China before the plenipotentiaries, and on their arrival operations commenced. It was against the Taku forts that the allies first directed their attention, and after some fighting, in which the Chinese showed considerable courage, those forts were all captured. In the meantime, some evasive attempts were made by the Chinese government to put a stop to hostilities. Taught by past experience, however, no faith was put in its pacific overtures, and Admiral Hope pushed forward and occupied Tientsin. Here some Chinese Imperial Commissioners again endeavoured to stop the progress of the allies by negotiation, but it was found that they had no authority from the Emperor, and the allies marched forward towards Tanchow. In their route they encountered the Chinese cavalry, under their Tartar General San-ko-lin-din, who were completely defeated. Previous to this battle, Mr. Parkes, Mr. Loch, Captain Brabazon, Lieutenant Anderson, Messrs. Norman, Bowlby, and eighteen sowars, under the protection of a white flag, had been taken prisoners by the Tartar cavalry, some of whom were sent to Pekin, while others were carried off into the interior. Their treatment was of the most cruel nature. Thirteen out of their number were murdered, and the rest on their restoration bore evident marks of the cruelties they had suffered. Those taken to Pekin were Mr. Parkes, Mr. Loch, and two French soldiers; and when overtures were made by Prince Kung for peace, Lord Elgin replied that the army would advance to the assault of Pekin, unless, within three days, they were released, and the convention signed at Tanchow, and the ratifications exchanged at Pekin. These demands were not complied with, and the allies marched forward. Preparations were made for bombarding Pekin, but before the cannonading commenced, the demands of the allies were acceded to unconditionally. One of its gates was thrown open to the troops, and, for the first time in history, the flags of England and France floated victoriously on the walls of Pekin.

Part of the terms of the treaty was that it should be spared. At that time Lord Elgin was ignorant of the barbarous treatment of the English and French prisoners by the Chinese authorities, and when the truth became known by their release, Lord Elgin determined upon inflicting a just punishment upon the Chinese government by burning the Emperor's summer palace to the ground. That was accomplished, and all the luxuries which Chinese art could furnish, or wealth supply, fell into the hands of the troops engaged in the work of destruction. Nor was this all. Before Lord Elgin would make peace between Great Britain and the existing dynasty of China, which the Chinese government were now eager to obtain, he demanded and obtained a sum of 300,000 taels, to be divided among those who had been released from their captivity, and to the families of those who had been massacred. This done, the convention was signed on the 24th of October. Its chief provisions were, that the Emperor expressed his regret for the act of the garrison of the Taku forts, whereby her Majesty's representative had been obstructed on his route to Pekin; that henceforth her representative should reside permanently or occasionally at Pekin, as her Majesty should decide; that an indemnity of 8,000,000 taels should be paid to the British government, by instalments, for the expenses of the war; that the port of Tientsin should be opened to British commerce; that the Chinese might take service in the British colonies from all the ports of China; that a specified portion of the township of Cowloon, in the province of Canton, should be ceded to her Majesty, as a dependency of the British colony of Hong Kong; and that the Emperor of China should cause the convention and treaty to be printed and published for his subjects' information. The ratifications of this treaty were duly exchanged on the 5th of November, and the allied forces evacuated Pekin, and retired to Tientsin, where they wintered.

Parliament was opened by the Queen on the 5th of February, 1861, when her Majesty announced the conclusion of peace with China. Her Majesty's speech on this occasion expressed regret that serious differences had arisen among the states of the North American Union, and expressed a hope that those differences might admit of a satisfactory adjustment. No measures of great political importance were brought forward this session. No mention was made of reform in Parliament; and by the removal of Lord John Russell in July to the Upper House, with an earldom, that question has lost its most able advocate. Votes of thanks were passed in both Houses to the army and navy engaged in the war with China; and, although some members protested against the destruction of the Emperor's summer palace, as an act of vandalism, the majority considered it as a just retribution for acts of treachery

and barbarity committed by the Chinese government under the sanction of the Court of Pekin. As in the preceding year, the business of the session chiefly related to the amendment of the laws, internal improvements, and special and private regulations. The measure which possessed more general interest than any other, was an Act to Amend the Law relating to Bankruptcy and Insolvency, which had hitherto been felt as unjust and oppressive. Towards the close of the session, complaints were made of the small amount of progress which had been made in legislation; but they were unheeded, and Parliament was prorogued on the 6th of August.

At that time the differences in America, alluded to in Her Majesty's speech, had become more serious than ever. Eleven out of the fourteen Southern States had seceded from the Union, and war between the two great sections of the American Republic —the North and the South —had become inevitable. The British government wisely resolved not to interfere with this quarrel. Great Britain enjoyed profound peace, and both its executive and people were desirous of preserving that blessing. Towards the close of the year, however, a war between England and North America became imminent. The Confederates, or Southern States, having sent commissioners to England and France, they were seized as contraband of war on board a British merchant vessel by the captain and crew of a man-of-war belonging to the Federals, or Northern States, and taken to New York and thrown into prison. This was a direct insult to the British flag, and a breach of the Law of Nations, and hence a demand was sent by the British government for their immediate release. To give effect to this demand, preparations were made for war. Ships-of-war were fitted out with remarkable expedition, and troops were sent to Canada to be ready for the dread alternative. The whole nation, as in the time of the Crimean war, became warlike; and had a contest taken place with America, it would have been one of the most popular wars in which the British people had ever been engaged. Happily, however, the event was only foreshadowed. Although the Federals generally expressed their eagerness for war with England, and counselled the rejection of the demand of the British government, as the conflict between the North and the South had commenced with all its horrors, and as President Lincoln feared to have "two wars on his hands at the same time," the Southern commissioners were released, and war between Great Britain and North America was thereby averted.

While yet peace or war was uncertain, an event occurred which cast a gloom over the whole of the British nation. "A man of gracious presence and gracious nature —handsome, nobly bred,

and bountiful, in outward manner and in inward soul a gentleman," passed, after a few days' illness, from the public sight. Near the hour of midnight, on the 14th of December, the stroke of the angel of death fell upon Albert the Prince Consort, leaving the Queen in widowhood and the royal children fatherless. The mournful tidings of his death flew apace to all parts of the kingdom. The day following was the Sabbath, and many heard of it as they were on their way to the House of God, and many more as they were assembled within its walls. That Sabbath was a day of mourning, lamentation, and woe, among all classes of society. The whole community shared in the deep griefs of their widowed Queen and her fatherless children. How deeply the people shared in those griefs was shown on the day of the solemn funeral of the illustrious dead. The shadow of death, like a vast funeral pall, appeared to fall on the whole nation, and to cover it with deep and heartfelt sorrow. That sorrow found eloquent expression in the sympathetic addresses of condolence laid at the foot of the throne by both Houses of Parliament and her Majesty's faithful subjects—addresses which also justly eulogised the numerous virtues that adorned the exalted character of him for whom the Queen and her people mourned.

The character of Prince Albert during his sojourn in his adopted country—a country he so much loved—was a bright pattern to the whole nation. In the room of State—in the halls of learned and scientific societies—in the places where charity asks for aid—and in private life—it shone forth with unequalled lustre among princes. Every good cause might count on the aid of his illustrious talents, his hand, and his purse. All his eminent abilities were devoted to the noblest ends. His motto was, Progress, national and individual. The arts and sciences, education, agriculture, manners, morals, refinement—in a word, everything that tended to exalt the British nation and conduce to individual happiness, found in him a noble patron. It was to "Albert the Good" that the Great Exhibition of 1851 owed its origin; and for months before his death he was unwearied in his exertions to promote a second International Exhibition for the year 1862. That building was in the course of erection when the hand of death fell upon him, and on the 1st of May, in the year when this history closes, it was inaugurated. The loss of his presence was on that day deeply felt. It was opened, indeed, by commission, with great splendour; but by his death it was shorn of one of its most gratifying features. May it fulfil the purposes for which this second Exhibition, like that of the Crystal Palace, was conceived by him whose eye cannot witness the wonders it

displays—the promotion of art and trade, of industry and progress, and of peace and harmony among all nations!

REMARKABLE EVENTS OF THE PERIOD.

A.D.

1856. Oude annexed to the British Indian Empire. Peace proclaimed between Russia and the allies. Alexander II. Emperor of Russia crowned at Moscow. International Philanthropic Congress held at Brussels.

1857. Mutiny of the native Bengal army in India. Delhi and Lucknow captured. War with China. Canton bombarded.

1858. Attempt to assassinate the Emperor of France. The Princess Royal of England married to Prince Frederick William of Prussia. Treaty between Great Britain and China signed at Tientsin. Queen Victoria visits the Emperor of France at Cherbourg.

1859. War between Austria and France and Sardinia. That war suddenly ended by a treaty of peace. Renewed war with China. Volunteer rifle corps established in England.

1860. Treaty of commerce between England and France. Savoy and Nice annexed to France by treaty. The Prince of Wales visits Canada and the United States. The Taku forts captured by the English and French troops in China. Victor Emmanuel proclaimed King of Italy. The English and French troops occupy Pekin. Treaty of peace signed between England and China.

1861. War in the United States between the North and the South. Great preparations made for an International Exhibition in 1862. The seventh census in Great Britain, and the fifth in Ireland, taken. The death of Prince Albert.

1862. The Prince of Wales visits the East. The Great International Exhibition opened.

CHAP. XXIII.

NOTICE OF THE RELIGION, GOVERNMENT AND LAWS, LITERATURE, ARTS, COMMERCE, AND MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE LAST PERIOD OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

Religion.—THE principal events connected with the religious history of this period have been recorded in the previous pages. They chiefly consisted in legislative acts tending towards a more enlarged system of toleration. The established church remained as it does still most intimately connected with the state, but a greater liberty of conscience was allowed to all bodies of Protestant sectaries. By the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, the Roman Catholic Relief Bill, and other measures of a similar tendency, persons not in connection with the Established Church have been placed on nearly the same footing as churchmen, with respect to political rights and privileges, and there are few offices and dignities from which any class of British subjects is excluded on account of religious opinions. Even the Jews, who for ages have been trodden under foot, and looked upon as outcasts from society in every country in Europe, have been here permitted to have a voice in the great councils of the nation.

Government and Laws. — Concerning the government of this period a few words will suffice, for in England it has remained essentially the same as it was in the last period noticed in this History. A great change, however, took place in the constitution of Ireland, in the abolition of its parliament, as has been mentioned in a previous page. Many important alterations were made in the criminal jurisprudence of England, numerous barbarous statutes were erased from the statute-book, and others rendered more consonant with the enlightened spirit of the age. Mercy has been blended with justice in a remarkable degree; and though some laws still require modification, the British code may be said to be generally worthy of a Christian community.

Literature. — The progress of literature in this period has been very remarkable. In the middle of the last century it had lost almost all traces of originality. Invention was discouraged, research unvalued, and the examination of nature little prosecuted. It seems to have been considered that the treasures accumulated in the preceding age were sufficient for all national purposes, and that the sole work of authors was to reproduce what had been already written in a more elegant shape, and a more polished style. Our

literature, however, did not long retain this servile character. The American war first, and then the French revolution, broke the chains that had thus fettered the public mind, and works of great excellence, too numerous to mention, appeared in every department. Poets, historians, theologians, critics, and scientific writers appeared again, whose productions are still generally known and read. Cheap literature has become so common, that books are now as easily obtained by the poor, as they were by the rich at former periods. One striking feature of the literature of this age is displayed in what is termed "the Periodical Press," in which reviews and magazines hold a high rank. But amidst much that is excellent, there have also appeared works destructive to morality and religious principles, and the press has occasionally proved a mighty engine for evil as well as for good. Infidel publications, and novels of an immoral tendency, abound; so that it becomes especially necessary for the young, or those who may choose for them, to exercise care and judgment in their selection. An immoral book well written is like a poisoned fountain that runs for ever: the author of such a book may do mischief as long as the world lasts, he is a nuisance to future ages, and lays a snare for those who are yet unborn. The poet says justly: —

> "Books are not seldom talismans and spells
> By which the magic art of shrewder wits
> Holds an unthinking multitude enthrall'd.
> Some to the fascination of a name
> Surrender judgment hoodwink'd. Some the style
> Infatuates, and, through labyrinths and wilds
> Of error, leads them by a tune entranced;
> While sloth seduces more; too weak to bear
> The insupportable fatigue of thought,
> And swallowing, therefore, without pause or choice,
> The total grist unsifted, husks and all." COWPER.

Arts.—The arts, as well as literature, have made a remarkable progress in this period; and agriculture, architecture, painting, and music have advanced by rapid strides towards perfection. A remarkable revival of the art of wood-engraving has also taken place, and it derives its principal interest from being applicable to the illustration of books. In the English school of painting, artists have appeared who have immortalised their names by works worthy to be compared to the great productions of the old masters. Thus the portraits of Sir Joshua Reynolds have been said to possess the simplicity of Titian, the vigour of Rembrandt, and the elegance and delicacy of Vandyke. It was in this period that the Royal Academy was founded, by which the art of painting has received great encouragement. Sculpture also has made rapid progress, and the names of Banks, Bacon, Nollekens, Flaxman, and Chantrey,

are justly celebrated. Line-engraving, in the hands of Woolett and Strange, was brought to a degree of perfection it had never yet reached, and which has never since been equalled. The arts of mezzotinto and lithography have, likewise, been adapted with great success, for the purpose of illustrating popular works.

In the useful arts, the most important event that has happened for many ages belongs to the period now under consideration. It is the era of the general introduction of Railways. Something of the kind had previously been known at the collieries, but in the year 1825 a public road of this kind for the transport of goods and passengers was in use in Durham; in 1830 that between Liverpool and Manchester was opened with great rejoicings, which, however, were unfortunately damped by the fatal accident that put an end to the life of Mr. Huskisson, recently one of the ministers. In 1837 the first London Railway, the North-Western, was opened to the public, though only for a short distance.

The beneficial results of this wonderfully-rapid mode of travelling are so numerous, that we cannot do more than allude to them here; and, indeed, they are also so evident, that it would be almost superfluous to enter into much detail concerning them.

Commerce.—Of the British commerce, that branch which we enjoyed exclusively, namely, the commerce with our colonies, was long regarded as the most advantageous. Since the separation of the American States from Great Britain, however, the trade, the industry, and manufactures of the latter have greatly increased. New markets have been opened, the receipts from which are more certain and less tedious than they formerly were, and by supplying a great variety of markets, the skill and ingenuity of British artisans have taken a wider range. The productions of their labour have been adapted to the wants, not of rising colonies, but of nations the most wealthy and refined, in every part of the globe. Our commercial system, no longer resting on the artificial basis of speculation, has been rendered more solid as well as more liberal, and the recent great measures of free trade have proved of the utmost benefit to British commerce. No nation upon the face of the earth is, as regards its commerce, the equal of Great Britain. It is, indeed, on its commerce that its greatness is chiefly based; its ships visit all lands and all climes, carrying its productions thither and receiving in return their gold and their produce. One great cause of the extension of commerce is the application of machinery in our manufactures. By this means Great Britain is enabled to supply the world with articles for domestic use which cannot readily be obtained elsewhere. "To see," writes a British tourist, in 1791, "barren hills and valleys laugh and sing under the influence of an auspicious trade, must give the benevolent heart the most agreeable

sensations. Villages swarming with strong, healthy, and beautiful children, well fed: these may be considered as the offspring of trade. Handsome country-houses on every hill, elegantly furnished, and surrounded by as elegant pleasure-grounds: these are thy blessings, O Commerce! these are thy rewards, O Industry!"

> "Ingenious Art, with her expressive face,
> Steps forth to fashion and refine the race;
> Not only fills necessity's demand,
> But overcharges her capacious hand:
> Capricious taste itself can crave no more
> Than she supplies from her abounding store;
> She strikes out all that luxury can ask,
> And gains new vigour at her endless task."

Manners and Customs. — The period at which this History has now arrived is so recent, and its habits and modes of thought differ by such fine and scarcely perceptible shades from our own, that the subject of manners and customs may be dismissed in few words. On former occasions it was necessary to be more minute, that the imagination of the reader might be transported back to the times described, in order to call up their bodily presence before them. Now, however, it may be assumed that the prominent characteristics of the manners to which this section refers, are so much the same which still prevail as to render detail unnecessary. There may be shades of difference in the dress, the habits, the furniture, and the amusements of the former part of the period to which these remarks refer, but they are so slight as not to call for any specific notice. An acute writer's opinions on the manners of the English at the close of the reign of George III. are still in a great measure applicable at the present day. "The dominating idea which gives form and bearing to the manners of Great Britain is English. Before it all provincial peculiarities are giving way: to it Scotch and Irish manners are conforming. It is the model in which all are cast, though its impress is less distinct and sharp, in many cases, from the unfavourable nature of the materials, or of the circumstances under which they have been passed through it. An Englishman's *ideal* of manners is not unusually typified by his *ideal* of dress and equipage. There is in his choice of all three a shunning of the gaudy, or anything that appears to approach to it, which amounts even to affectation. There is combined with this an intense anxiety that the quality of the article should be excellent, and its finish, with all the plainness of its form, exquisite. The English gentleman, if addicted to show, lavishes it not on his own person, but on his domestics; and even, with regard to them, he wishes their appearance to be rich rather than gaudy. His plain carriage must be as neat as tools and varnish can make it, and as commodious; his horses must strike by their blood and high keep-

ing; the harness must be such as to pass unnoticed; and the standard of taste to which the deportment of the English gentleman must conform is strictly analogous. His amusements are manly, with a strong dash of the useful; his taste is to make himself comfortable. He is a hunter, a votary of the turf, a cricketer, a yachter; and in all these pursuits he prides himself on being master of mechanical details. He is fond of farming, or of reading, or of taking part in public business; but these serious pursuits he affects to treat as amusements: even though an enthusiast in them, he must talk lightly of them. On the other hand, he sometimes thinks he must affect a passionate interest in the pleasures of the table, and similar trifles, and will be pardoned, too, for being somewhat attached to them, so long as he combines with them a relish for manly sports. The English gentleman is hardy, endowed with a healthy relish for pleasure, and has a high sense of honour. This ideal of the high-bred gentleman communicates its sentiment to the whole of society: even the ladies catch something of its self-dependent, elastic tone, without diminution of, or injury to, their perfectly feminine graces. This model is emulated throughout society, in sufficiently gross and awkward caricature sometimes, but still so that lineaments of what is imitated can be detected." That England, at the close of the reign of George III., had much to learn in the philosophy of social intercourse, and that it still has much to learn, even in the nineteenth century, cannot be denied; but its social habits and modes of thought are now infinitely superior to what they were, and in these qualities as well as in morality and character, England may challenge comparison with any nation that has ever existed, either in ancient or modern times.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

CHAPTER I.

What are the earliest traditions respecting the Ancient Britons?

What legend is perpetuated concerning them by Geoffrey of Monmouth?

What is the first well-authenticated fact concerning Britain in the earliest ages?

What was the purpose of the Phœnicians in visiting these islands?

What race did the Romans find in the southern part of Britain? and who first described them?

Are there any proofs of the existence of that race?

What is said of the people occupying the interior?

Were they of the same descent as those who occupied the southern parts?

State the names of the British or Celtic tribes.

What is said of the boundaries of the country at that early period?

What was the character of the ancient Britons?

What was their employments?

Describe their houses.

Where were their towns erected, and how defended?

What does Cæsar say of their skill in the art of fortification?

Are there any specimens now in existence?

Can you describe Chun Castle?

What is said of the furniture and handicrafts of the Britons?

Describe their war-carriages.

Describe the earthenware of the Britons.

Were they acquainted with the art of mining?

What is said of their commerce?

What is said of them as warriors?

What great roads were constructed by them?

How did the Romans improve these roads?

What is said of the barrows in which they buried their dead?

What modes of burial did they practise?

What was their diet? and what their beverage?

Can you relate anything concerning the Druids?

What function procured them the highest honour among the people?

What was their chief office?

What does Lucan say of their religious rites?

What ceremony was practised by them in gathering the mistletoe plant?

Was the sacredness of the miseltoe peculiar to them?
Describe the classes into which the Druids were divided.
In what consisted their historical and philosophical knowledge?
Did they believe in one God, and teach that doctrine to the people?
What is said of their rites? and what of their doctrines?
How did they maintain their authority over the people?
What is said of the Arch-Druid?
What is said of the Druidical system?
What is said of Druidism after the Druids, as an order of priesthood, became extinct?

CHAPTER II.

What Roman first attempted the subjugation of Britain.
Can you relate Cæsar's motives for this attempt?
In what year did Cæsar cross the British Channel? and with what success?
Relate the circumstances of his second invasion.
Who was his great opponent? and did he conquer Britain?
At what date did the Romans again invade the country? and by whom was it invaded?
Who succeeded Plautius? and what success attended Ostorius?
Can you relate anything concerning the British chieftain Caractacus?
Who were the next Roman governors of Britain?
What circumstance drove the Britons into revolt?
Relate the account given of Boadicea.
Who completed the conquest of Britain?
What is said of the Britons under the rule of Agricola?
By what people were the Romans attacked in the reign of Hadrian?
Were the Caledonians conquered?
By what people was Britain disturbed in the third and fourth centuries?
What emperor ruled over Britain in this period?
When did the Roman emperors abandon the island?
Relate the moral condition of the country under the domination of the Romans.
What is said of the spiritual condition of Britain at the same period?
Who was "England's first martyr?" and under what Roman emperor were the British Christians first persecuted?

CHAPTER III.

What was the state of Britain after the departure of the Romans?
What gave rise to the Saxon invasion?
Relate the character of the Saxons.
Who were their first leaders? and what was their success?
By what Saxon chiefs were they followed? and what kingdoms did they found?
When were the Anglo-Saxons first called English?
What is said of King Arthur?
What is said of the history of the Heptarchy?
What was the ascendant monarch of the Anglo-Saxons called?
What remarkable incident occurred in the reign of Ethelbert?

What circumstance led to the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons?
Relate the result of the mission of Augustine.
Who succeeded Ethelbert as Bretwalda? and what is said of him?
Relate the wars of Penda, the Saxon King of Mercia.
By whom was Penda conquered?
How did Wulfere extend his dominions?
At what time did the yellow plague appear in England?
Can you relate anything of Elfrid?
Under whom did the kingdom of Mercia assume the ascendency?
When were the kingdoms of the Heptarchy united under one sovereign?
What title did Egbert assume?

CHAPTER IV.

When did the Danes first invade England?
By whom was Egbert succeeded?
With what success did the Danes invade England in the reign of Ethelwulf?
What circumstance led to the partition of Ethelwulf's kingdom?
In whose reign did the Danes again invade England?
What was their success in the reign of Ethelred?
Who succeeded Ethelred?
Relate Alfred's first operations against the Danes.
By what means was he conquered by them?
Where did he take refuge? and what were his employments in his retreat?
By what means did Alfred gain intelligence of the councils and plan of the Danes?
Relate the result of the battle at Ethundune.
Was he again troubled by the Danes?
Relate their operations.
When did Alfred die?
Can you relate anything of the character of Alfred?
By whom was he succeeded?
In what wars was Edward engaged?
Who succeeded him on the throne?
In what wars was Athelstane engaged?
What title did Athelstane assume? and what was his character?
Can you relate anything of the events of Edmund's reign?
By whom was Edmund succeeded?
What events happened in Edrid's reign?
What commotions rent the kingdom in the reign of Edwy?
What was the character and conduct of Dunstan?
What circumstance led to the death of Edwy?
By whom was Edwy succeeded?
What title did Edgar assume? and what was his character?
Can you relate anything concerning the character of Elfrida?
Can you relate the circumstances of the death of Edward the Martyr?
Who next succeeded to the throne of England?
What circumstances led to the invasion of England by Sweyn, King of Denmark?
What success attended his operations?

CHAPTER V.

Can you relate anything of "Thurkill's host?"
Who defended Canterbury against the Danes? and what is said of Alphege the archbishop?
What circumstances led Sweyn again to invade England?
What was the result of this invasion?
By whom was Ethelred succeeded?
What treaty was concluded between the Saxons and the Danes in the reign of Edmund Ironside.
Who succeeded to the English throne at the death of Edmund?
What was the conduct of Canute on his succession?
What was his conduct at the latter part of his reign? By what incident is his power as a monarch illustrated?
By whom was Canute succeeded on the throne?
Can you relate the chief circumstances of Harold's reign?
What is said of Hardicanute, his successor?
Who did the people choose for their sovereign at the death of Hardicanute?
By whom was Edward the Confessor assisted to the throne?
Who in reality ruled the kingdom after his succession?
What circumstances rendered Edward unpopular?
What circumstance gave rise to a quarrel between Edward and Earl Godwin?
What were the results of this quarrel?
Relate the death of Earl Godwin.
When did Edward die? and what was his character?
By whom was he succeeded?
What claims had William, Duke of Normandy, to the throne of England?
What was the conduct of William when he heard of the death of Edward?
By whom was England invaded while William was preparing for war with Harold?
Can you relate the circumstances of the battle of Hastings?
What were its results?

CHAPTER VI.

What is said of the government of the Anglo-Saxons?
How were their kings elected?
Describe the castles among the Anglo-Saxons.
Describe the divisions of the country at that period.
What was the general character of the Anglo-Saxon laws?
Can you describe any of these laws?
What was the nature of guilds, or clubs, among the Anglo-Saxons?
What were the trades of the Anglo-Saxons?
Can you describe the commerce of the Anglo-Saxons?
What is said of their agriculture?
In what did their coinage, or money, consist?
What is said of the Anglo-Saxon women?
Describe the houses and furniture of this period.
Describe the dress of the Anglo-Saxons.
Describe their food.

What is said of their salutations ?
What of their conduct towards children ?
What was their mode of travelling ?
What were their amusements ?
What is said of the literature of that period ? and what of the Anglo-Saxon language ?
Relate what is said of the arts of poetry, painting, and architecture, among the Anglo-Saxons.

CHAPTER VII.

What was the conduct of the Normans after the battle of Hastings ?
What steps did William take to secure his conquest ?
What circumstances attended his coronation ?
What oath did he take ? and did he respect his oath ?
What insurrections took place in the first year of his reign ?
Relate his operations in Devonshire and other counties.
What circumstances led to the revolt of Edward, Earl of Mercia ?
Can you relate anything concerning Aldred, the Archbishop of York ?
What is said of the disaffection of the English nobles and Norman chiefs ?
Relate the various revolts which took place in 1069.
Relate William's operations against the Northumbrian people.
In what other parts did insurrections break out ?
Relate his operations against Hereward, a Saxon leader.
What circumstances called William to his continental dominions ?
What circumstances recalled him to England ?
What was the cause of a quarrel which broke out between William and his son Robert ?
What was the character of Robert ?
Can you relate anything concerning Odo, the king's brother ?
By what means did William oppress England ?
What circumstances preceded his death ? and where did he die ?
In what manner was he buried ? and what was his character ?
By whom was William the Conqueror succeeded ?
What plan was formed for the dethronement of William, surnamed Rufus ?
Did it succeed ?
Relate the circumstances.
What is said of Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury ?
What success attended the operations of William Rufus against the Welsh ?
What led Robert to mortgage Normandy to his brother William ?
Relate the circumstances attending the death of William Rufus.
By whom was he succeeded ?
In what way did Henry commence his reign ?
What success attended Robert's invasion of Palestine ?
What gave rise to a war with Robert and Henry ? and what were its results ?
Relate the events subsequent to this war.
In what way did he lose his only son ? and what effect had it upon him ?
What was the cause of his death ? and what was his character ?
Who succeeded Henry on the throne ?

In what way did Stephen seek to secure his usurped dignity?
In what war was Stephen engaged? and when did he die?
What does the Saxon chronicler say of his reign?
By whom was Stephen succeeded?
What were the first acts of Henry's government?
Relate his wars and negotiations on the Continent.
Who assisted him in these wars and negotiations?
What was the character of Thomas à Becket?
What circumstances led to his death?
What events followed his death?
When was Ireland conquered?
What circumstances attended the last year of Henry's life?
What effect had the rebellion of his sons upon his mind?
Where did he die? and how was he buried?
What were the principal features in his character?
By whom was Henry II. succeeded?
What circumstances attended the coronation of Richard?
What circumstances led to his invasion of Palestine? and what was his success?
What circumstances led to his imprisonment? and by what means was he discovered and released?
What events had occurred in his absence? and what was his conduct towards his brother John, who had usurped his throne?
In what war was he subsequently engaged? and by what means was he slain?
Who succeeded Richard?
In what wars was John engaged after his accession?
What circumstances subsequently involved him in a quarrel with the Pope? and what were the results of this quarrel?
Who induced him to submit to the Pope? and what were the circumstances attending his submission?
What led to disputes between him and his nobles? and what were the results of these disputes?
What circumstances led to a war with his barons? where did he die? and what was his character?

CHAPTER VIII.

Relate what is said of the Crusades of this period.
Can you describe the feudal law established by the Normans?
What is said of the Saxon courts of justice in this period?
What was the result of the rigour of the Anglo-Norman government?
What is said of the literature of this period?
What is said of the art of agriculture? of architecture? of sculpture and painting? of poetry and music?
Can you describe the commerce of this period?
What was the coined money of the Anglo-Saxons?
Can you relate anything concerning the manners and customs of this period?
What is said of the household furniture of the Normans? and what is related of their dress?
Describe their sports and pastimes.

CHAPTER IX.

Who succeeded John on the throne of England ?

What age was Henry on his accession ?

Who was chosen protector ?

How did the Earl of Pembroke govern ?

Who succeeded him in his office ?

When did Henry assume the government of England ? and what was the result ?

When was money first raised by direct taxation ?

On what condition did Parliament consent to this measure ?

In 1224 there was a war with France : what led to it ? and what were its results ?

What happened to Hubert de Burgh at this period ?

Relate the circumstances.

Whom did Henry marry ? and what were the consequences of his marriage ?

What were the causes of a quarrel which now ensued between Henry and his barons ?

What was the result of this quarrel ? and when was it terminated ?

Relate the circumstances of the Crusade in 1270.

When did Henry die ? and what were the chief features of his character ?

By whom was he succeeded ?

Relate the circumstances of the tournament at Chalons.

When was Edward crowned ?

How were the Jews treated by him ?

What was his ruling passion ?

What success attended his arms in Wales ?

In what way did he seek to replenish his treasury ?

What designs had he on the crown of Scotland ? with what success were they attended ?

What circumstances led to his ratification of the Great Charter ?

What success attended his arms in Flanders ?

In what war was he engaged when he died ? Where did he die ? What was his character ? To what did his ambition conduce ?

By whom was Edward succeeded ?

What was the conduct of Edward II. when he ascended the throne ?

Whom did he marry ?

Can you relate anything concerning Gaveston, his favourite ?

What were the results of Edward's war with Scotland ?

Whom did he next take into his favour ?

Can you relate anything concerning the Despencers ? and what was the result of the favour shown them by Edward ?

When was Edward dethroned ?

What is related of his death ? and what was the character of his reign ?

Who succeeded him on the throne ?

At what age was Edward III. when he began his reign ?

There was war with Scotland at the commencement of his reign : relate the circumstances, and its results.

To whom was Edward married ? Who governed the kingdom at this period ?

What is said concerning the death of Mortimer ?

On what grounds did Edward claim the crown of France ?

Can you relate the circumstances of the war which he undertook in support of his pretensions ?

Can you describe the battle of Crecy ?

What events followed this battle?

In 1348 there was a great plague : what countries did it visit ?

When was war resumed with France ?

What were its consequences ?

Can you describe the battle of Poictiers ?

Edward the Black Prince commanded in this battle : what is subsequently related of him ? When did he die ? What effect had his death on the health of his father ? When did Edward III. die ? What is said of his reign ?

By whom was he succeeded ?

What sort of government ruled England while Richard was a minor ?

In what wars was he engaged soon after his succession ?

These wars led to an insurrection : can you relate any of the circumcumstances attending it ?

To whom was Richard married ?

What quarrels took place at this period ?

What was the result of the quarrel between Richard and his Parliament ?

Who was the second wife of Richard ?

What circumstances followed his marriage with Isabella ?

By whom was Richard deposed ?

By whom was he succeeded ?

CHAPTER X.

Can you relate anything concerning the religion of this period ?

What is said of Wickliffe ?

Can you relate anything of the government and laws of this period?

What were the distinguishing characteristics of literature at this time ?

What was the common language of the learned ?

Who were the founders of English literature ?

What is said of the agriculture of this period ? what of the architecture ? what of sculpture and painting ? and what of music ?

What were the chief articles of commerce in this period ?

What were the relative values of the different kinds of coined money ?

Relate some of the leading features of the manners and customs of this period.

Give some account of the furniture and the dress of this period.

CHAPTER XI.

When and where was Henry IV. crowned ?

What circumstances followed his coronation ?

When and where did Richard II. die ?

In what wars did Henry engage ?
What revolts took place in the early part of his reign ?
How did the Commons act towards him ?
What circumstances troubled him in the latter years of his life ?
On what day and at what age did he die ?
By whom was he succeeded on the throne ?
What were the first acts of Henry of Monmouth ?
What commotion happened in the first year of his reign ?
What measures did he adopt against the Lollards ?
In what war was Henry engaged after this commotion ?
Describe the battle of Agincourt.
What was the fate of Sir John Oldcastle ?
What success attended the operations of Henry in Normandy ?
To whom was he married ?
When and where did he die ? and what was his character ?
By whom was he succeeded on the throne ?
Who governed the kingdom during the minority of Henry VI. ?
Relate some of the particulars of the war with France under the regency.
By whom was France delivered from the power of the English ?
State some of the leading features in the character of Joan of Arc.
What victories did she gain ?
What is said of Catherine of La Rochelle ?
Where was Joan of Arc captured ? and what was her fate ?
When was this war with France concluded ?
To whom was Henry of Windsor married ?
What circumstances led to the death of the Duke of Gloucester ?
When was war resumed with France ? and what were its results ?
Relate the circumstances attending the death of the Marquis of Suffolk.
Relate the circumstances of the insurrection headed by Cade.
Relate the circumstances of the revolt of the Duke of York.
What were the results of this revolt ?
When was Edward IV. recognised King of England ?
What victories were gained by him after his accession ?
What circumstances led to a rupture between him and the Earl of Warwick ?
What was the conduct of Warwick at the court of France ?
What was his success in his war against Edward ?
Where was he slain !
What was the result of the battle of Tewkesbury ?
What tragedy occurred in 1478 ?
When did Edward die ? and what was his character ?
By whom was he succeeded ?
What was the character of Richard, Duke of Gloucester ?
By what means did he encompass the death of Lord Hastings ?
By what means did he usurp the throne ?
Relate the circumstances attending the deaths of Edward V. and his brother.
Who opposed the claim of Richard to the throne ?
Was Henry, Earl of Richmond, successful ?
Describe the battle of Bosworth Field

CHAPTER XII.

Can you relate what is recorded of the Lollards ?

What improvements were made in the government and laws in this period ?

In what condition was literature during this period ?

By whom was the art of printing introduced into England ?

Relate what is said of the architecture of this age.

Relate what is said of English music.

Describe the state of commerce in this period.

What new coins were issued ?

Can you relate anything concerning the furniture and dress of this period ?

What is said of chivalry ?

Can you recollect anything you have read concerning the hospitality and sports of this period ?

CHAPTER XIII.

When was Henry VII. crowned ? and to whom was he married ?

Did this marriage put an end to the civil wars ?

What insurrection took place in Ireland ?

What was the result of Simnel's invasion of England ?

Can you relate any of the circumstances attending Henry's expedition to France ?

What is said of Perkin Warbeck ? who espoused Warbeck's cause ? and what was his fate ?

What was Henry's chief object after he had subdued all his enemies ?

Relate an event which illustrates his avaricious character.

How did he oppress his subjects ? when did he die ? and what is said of his reign ?

By whom was he succeeded ?

To whom was Henry VIII. first married ?

In what wars was he engaged ? and what were their results ?

Can you relate anything concerning his minister Wolsey ?

Can you relate anything concerning Henry's visit to Francis, King of France ?

What led to the death of the Duke of Buckingham ?

What obtained for Henry the title of "Defender of the Faith ?"

What circumstances involved him in a quarrel with the Church of Rome ?

Who was Henry's second wife ?

Can you relate anything concerning the fall of Wolsey ?

Can you relate anything of Cranmer and Thomas Cromwell ?

In what persecutions was Henry engaged ?

What was the fate of Anne Boleyn?

Who was Henry's third wife ?

What measures did Henry adopt against the monastic establishments ?

In 1536 an insurrection took place : relate its chief features and the results ?

Who was Henry's fourth wife ?

How was the fall of Cromwell compassed ?

Who was Henry's fifth wife ? and what was her fate ?
To what did Henry devote his time after the death of Catherine ?
Who was Henry's sixth wife ?
By what means did she escape destruction ?
Did Henry continue his persecutions at the latter period of his life ?
Name some of his victims.
What circumstances attended the death of Henry ?
Relate what is said of the character of his reign.
By whom was he succeeded ?
Who became protector during the minority of Edward VI. ?
In what war did the protector engage ?
Relate what is said of his measures in the promotion of the Reformation.
What circumstances led to insurrections during the protectorship ?
By whom was his fall compassed ? how was it effected ? and what circumstance led to his death ?
What particular acts were passed in Parliament in 1552 ?
When did Edward VI. die ? and to whom did he bequeath the crown ?
Who succeeded him ?
What was the fate of Lady Jane Grey ?
Describe the character of Queen Mary.
By what means did she re-establish Popery ? and what were the consequences of its re-establishment ?
To whom was Mary married ?
When did she commence the persecution of the Protestants ?
Relate some of the particulars of this persecution.
When did Mary die ? and what events led to her death ?
What was the character of her reign ?
By whom was Mary succeeded ?
What was Elizabeth's policy on ascending the throne ?
Did she succeed in re-establishing Protestantism ?
Was there any other claimant to the throne of England ?
What was the character of Mary, Queen of Scotland ?
In what condition was her country ?
Whom did she marry in 1565 ?
What were the results of this union ?
What was the fate of Lord Darnley ?
What was the ultimate fate of Mary ?
Was Elizabeth concerned in her death ?
In what continental wars did Elizabeth engage ?
What were the results of her war with France ?
What circumstances led to her war with Spain ? and what were its chief features ?
Describe Babington's conspiracy.
In what year did the Invincible Armada sail from the Tagus ?
Can you relate the result of this expedition ?
What expedition followed the defeat of the Armada ?
What circumstances cast a gloom over the last years of Elizabeth's reign ?
In 1599 there was an insurrection in Ireland : who was appointed to put it down ?
Was Essex successful ?
What were the consequences of his failure ?

By whom and when was the insurrection in Ireland quelled?
When did Elizabeth die? and what is said of her reign?

CHAPTER XIV.

Can you relate anything concerning the religion of this period?
Can you relate anything concerning the government and laws of this period?
What is said of the revenues of the crown?
Did commerce flourish in this period?
Describe some of the features of its progress.
What particular insurrection happened in the year 1517?
What was the origin of the English Russia Company?
By whom and in whose reign was the Royal Exchange erected?
What is said of the fairs of this period?
What is said of the coinage of this period?
Relate what is said of the furniture and costume of this period.
What is said of the duello, or duel?
Describe some of the chief features of the manners and customs of this period.
What particular festivals were observed?
What improvements took place in agriculture?
What were the chief manufactures of this period?
What were the characteristics of the architecture?
Who were the most celebrated painters?
What was the condition of literature at this period?
Name some of the most celebrated writers.

CHAPTER XV.

By whom was Elizabeth succeeded on the throne?
When was James crowned? and under what circumstances?
What plot was discovered soon after his accession?
Into what scheme did the Romanists enter to subvert the throne?
Name the chief conspirators. Relate the particulars of this plot.
What was the fate of the conspirators?
What was the conduct of James after this plot had been defeated? and what was the effect of his conduct?
Can you relate anything concerning the character of Prince Henry?
Who was the first favourite of King James?
What was the fate of the Earl of Somerset? and what led to his death?
Who was the next favourite of James?
What was the character of Villiers, Duke of Buckingham?
Can you relate anything concerning Sir Walter Raleigh?
On what charge was he executed?
In what war did James engage after the death of Raleigh? and what were its results?
What circumstance subsequently led to a rupture with Spain?
When did James die? and what was his character?
By whom was he succeeded on the throne?
To whom was Charles married? and were the people satisfied with this union?
Did Charles continue the war with Spain?

Was he supported by his Parliament?

Why did they refuse supplies? and how did he obtain money for carrying on the war with Spain?

What was the nature of the "Petition of Rights?"

On what grounds did Parliament quarrel with Charles?

What measures did he adopt to suppress its power?

For how long a period was there no Parliament called?

What was the conduct of Charles during that period?

How did he oppress the Puritans?

What resulted from the levying of ship-money?

Who opposed this exaction in the Court of Exchequer?

What circumstances gave rise to opposition to government in Scotland?

When did Charles again call a Parliament?

What was the name given to this Parliament? and what was its character?

What measures were adopted by this Parliament?

When did war first break out between Charles and his Parliament?

What battles were fought at this time? and what were their results?

What man appeared who was destined to overthrow the throne of Charles?

What battles decided his fate?

What measures followed the capture of Charles?

By what name was the next Parliament denominated?

Did the Rump Parliament proceed to the trial of Charles?

Relate the particulars of his trial, and his execution.

What government was adopted on the death of Charles?

What was the success of Cromwell's operations in Ireland and Scotland?

How was he received in England on his return? and what measures followed his victories?

What induced a war with the Dutch?

By what means was the Rump Parliament overthrown?

By what Parliament was it succeeded?

How was this Parliament broken up?

What new dignity, and what powers were now conferred on Cromwell?

What battle put an end to the war with the Dutch?

Can you relate the particulars?

What were the first acts of Cromwell as lord-protector?

What was the character and conduct of his first Parliament?

What conspiracy was formed to bring in Charles II.?

What alliance did he form with France?

What was Cromwell's conduct on being urged to assume the title of king?

What House of Peers did he create?

What were the consequences of this measure?

What measures did he take to control his enemies?

What victories did his troops, combined with the French, obtain? and what were the consequences?

When did Cromwell die? and whom did he name as his successor?

Did Richard Cromwell long retain the title of protector?

What circumstances led to his abdication from office?

By whose means was Charles II. restored to his throne?

CHAPTER XVI.

Can you relate anything concerning religion in the reign of King James ?

Can you relate anything concerning religion in the reign of Charles I. ?

Who held rule in matters of religion during the Commonwealth ?

What was the conduct of the Puritans ?

State some of the leading features of the government in this period.

What was the character of the literature of this period ?

How did Cromwell encourage literature ?

What is said of the agriculture at this period ?

Give some account of the architecture, the sculpture, the painting, and the music of this period.

Relate some particulars concerning the commerce.

What proofs are given of its prosperity ?

What improvements were made in the furniture of this period ?

Relate some particulars concerning the costume.

What was the customary mode of deciding "affairs of honour ?"

Describe the chief amusements of the courts of James and Charles.

Relate some particulars concerning the manners of the people at this period.

What is said of the superstitions of the age ?

Relate some particulars of the town thieves and robbers in this period.

Describe the chief amusements of the people.

CHAPTER XVII.

When did Charles II. land at Dover ?

How was he received by his subjects ?

How did he act towards the Cromwellites ?

Describe the Act of Indemnity passed by Parliament.

What other bills were presented to the king with the Indemnity Act ?

What measures were taken concerning the question of religion ?

What measures were passed by the Pension Parliament ?

To whom and when was Charles II. married ?

For what sum of money did he sell Dunkirk to the French ?

Of what nature was the Conventicle Act ? and what were its consequences ?

In 1665 a plague broke out in London : describe its consequences.

In 1666 a fire broke out in the City : describe its results.

What were the chief characteristics of the history of England for several years after these events ?

Describe some of the incidents which occurred.

What plot was discovered in 1678 ?

Give some account of it.

What events happened in Scotland at this period ?

When was the Habeas Corpus Act passed, and what is its character ?

Into what parties was the nation now divided ?

What was the conduct of Parliament at this period ?

What was the result of its opposition to the king ?

Describe the nature and result of the Rye-house plot.

Describe the nature of the persecutions of this period, both in England and Scotland.

When did Charles die? and what was his character as a man and a king?

Who succeeded him on the throne?

How did James act on his accession?

What insurrections occurred soon after his succession?

What were the results of these insurrections?

What measures did James adopt for the re-establishment of Popery?

What were the results of these measures?

Can you describe the circumstances attending the Revolution?

When the throne of James was subverted by William, what convention was entered into by the latter with the English and the Scotch?

CHAPTER XVIII.

Can you relate any of the particulars concerning the religion of this period?

What was the character of the government?

Describe the condition of literature.

What is said of painting and music?

Do you recollect anything of what you have read concerning the commerce of this period?

What is said of the growth of London?

Describe the coinage of this period.

What is said of the costume?

What is said of the manners?

Describe the chief amusements.

CHAPTER XIX.

In what condition did William III. find himself when he ascended the throne?

Give some account of the opposition he met with from Parliament.

What means did James adopt to recover his throne, and what was his success?

In what continental war did William engage?

Describe some of the results.

What conspiracies took place at this period?

What was the origin of the Bank of England?

Can you relate anything concerning the death of Queen Mary?

William was still at war with the French: what efforts were now made for carrying on the war?

In 1696 a plot was discovered for the assassination of William: describe its character.

When was peace made with France? and on what conditions?

What particular events followed the peace of Ryswick?

What circumstances led William to contemplate the resignation of his crown?

What events led to the war of succession?

What act was passed in 1701 for the settlement of the succession to the English crown?

What events led to a renewal of war with France?

Did William live to commence this war?

When did he die? and what was his character?

By whom was William succeeded ?
Under whose influence did Anne rule ?
What were the leading events of her reign ?
Can you describe any of the operations of Marlborough against the French ?
What is the nature of "Queen Anne's Bounty ?"
When did the union between England and Scotland take place, and what was its character ?
Can you relate anything concerning the intrigues of Mrs. Masham ?
Can you relate anything concerning Sacheverell ?
When was peace made with France ?
What were the terms of the treaty of Utrecht ?
What followed the conclusion of war ?
Describe the nature of these intrigues.
When did Queen Anne die ? and what was her character ?
Who succeeded her on the throne ?
How was George I. received by his English subjects ?
What was his character as a politician ?
What efforts were made to subvert his throne ?
Relate some of the particulars concerning the operations of the Pretender.
What was the result of the rebellion in Scotland ?
What was the great object of the Septennial Act ?
In 1718 a war broke out with Spain : describe its operations and results.
What circumstance led to a bill for limiting the peerage at this period ?
Can you give any account of the memorable South-Sea Company ?
What plot was discovered in 1722 ?
In 1726 there was again war with Spain : state its origin and results.
Where did George I. die? and what was his character ?
By whom was he succeeded on the throne ?
Under what circumstance did George II. ascend the throne ?
What is said of his person and manners ?
What is said of the character of his queen Caroline ?
What measures distinguished Parliament in the years 1729 and 1730 ?
In what does the history of England chiefly consist for the next four years ?
Relate some of the events which took place.
When did Queen Caroline die ?
What anecdote is related in proof of the king's affection for her?
What particular debate took place in Parliament in 1738 ?
At this time war again broke out with Spain : relate the particulars.
In what other war was England engaged in 1743 ?
To what other war did this lead ?
Can you relate any of the particulars concerning the attempts made by the young Pretender to regain the throne of England ?
What events on the Continent preceded the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle ? and what were the consequences of the war with Spain ?
What is related of the strife of parties at this period.
When was the Calendar changed ? and what was the nature of the change ?
In 1753 an alteration took place in the law of marriage: describe the circumstances which led to it.

In 1755 a war broke out with France: what is this war called in history?

Describe its origin, and its first operations and results?

What new taxes were imposed in 1758 to meet the expenses of this war?

What were the operations of the war in this year?

What were the operations of the war in 1759?

When did George II. die? and under what circumstances?

CHAPTER XX.

Can you relate anything concerning the religion of this period?

What were the peculiar characteristics of the government?

What was the condition of literature?

What is said of painting? what of agriculture? what of engraving? what of music?

Describe the condition of the commerce of this period.

What is said of the party spirit of this period?

What was the character of the education of this period?

To what evils did the defective state of education lead?

Give some account of the amusements of this period.

CHAPTER XXI.

By whom was George II. succeeded on the throne?

In what condition was the kingdom at the accession of George III.?

To whom and when was he married?

When were their Majesties crowned, and what particular spectator witnessed the ceremony?

In what condition was the affairs of Europe in 1761?

When was peace concluded, and what were the terms of the treaties?

What particular dissensions arose out of this peace?

What measures gave rise to discontents in America? and what changes took place in the government?

What further measures incensed the Americans?

What particular circumstances embarrassed ministers at home at this period?

What changes took place in the ministry from this embarrassment?

When did war break out in America? and what were its first operations under General Gage?

Who succeeded Gage in the command? and what were the first operations of his successor?

What particular bills were passed in 1777, in reference to the Americans.

What were the operations of the war in this year?

When did France contract an alliance with the Americans? and what was its result?

In what other wars was England engaged in 1799?

What were the leading events of this general war in 1780 and 1781?

What change took place in the administration in 1782?

What was the result of this change?

Describe the treaties of peace entered into by the Rockingham administration.

What new changes now took place in the ministry ?

What particular riot occurred in London during this war with America ?

Give some account of it.

In 1785 a treaty of commerce and navigation was signed between France and Great Britain : state its particular features.

What attempt was made upon the life of the king in 1787 ?

In the next year what happened to the king ?

What was the result of the aid which the King of France afforded to the Americans ?

Can you relate any particulars concerning the revolution in France ?

What was the result of this revolution as regards England ?

When does Napoleon's name first appear in history ?

What attempts were made to set up a republic in England ?

Were they successful ? State their results.

In 1794 Holland allied itself with France : what were the consequences of this alliance to England ?

Can you describe the mutiny at Sheerness, which took place in 1797?

Can you describe the battle fought by Nelson in 1798, in the roads of Aboukir ?

When was Ireland united with England ?

What event, in 1799, led to a rupture between England and Russia ?

Describe the events of the war in the years 1800 and 1801.

What particular commotions prevailed at this period in England ?

What armed neutrality was entered into at this period ?

What were its immediate consequences ?

When was peace made with France and Russia ?

What were the features of the treaty of peace ?

Was it lasting ?

What led to a new rupture between France and England ?

When was Napoleon created Emperor of the French ?

What European powers acknowledged his dignity ?

What coalition was formed against him ?

What great naval victory was gained by Nelson, in 1805 ?

What were its consequences to Nelson ?

What were its consequences to the French ?

What great statesman died at this period ?

What changes took place in the administration at this period ?

What were the operations of the war in 1806 ?

What decrees were issued by Napoleon against England ? and what counter-proclamations were issued by England against Napoleon ?

What were the consequences of the continental system to Denmark ?

What led to a peace between France and Russia ?

What were the first results of this treaty ?

Can you describe the military operations in Spain and Portugal in 1808 ?

Who did Napoleon finally place on the throne of Spain ?

What happened to George III. in 1810 ?

To what did his physicians attribute his malady ?

Who was appointed to the regency ?

What event led to the change in the ministry ?

To whom was Napoleon about this time married ?

What led to a war between Napoleon and the Emperor of Russia ?

Who assumed the offensive?
What were the consequences of his invasion of Russia?
What events had happened in Spain while he was thus engaged?
What nations now combined against him?
Describe their operations.
When did the allies enter France.
What was the result of their operations?
What were the conditions of the peace which followed?
Who visited England after this First Peace of Paris?
Was the peace lasting?
What led again to war?
Describe the circumstances attending Napoleon's escape from Elba.
What armies were raised against him?
What battles followed?
Describe the battle of Waterloo.
What were its results?
To what island was Napoleon banished?
What was the character of the Second Peace of Paris.
What was the character of the "Holy Alliance" formed at this period?
What royal marriages took place in 1816?
What riots now took place in England? and from what causes?
What expedition was now fitted out against Algiers? and what was its success?
When did the Princess Charlotte die?
What marriages took place in consequence?
When did Queen Charlotte die? and what was her character?
What riots took place in 1818? and what measures resulted from them?
When did George III. die? and how were the people affected by his death?
Who succeeded him on the throne?
What had alienated the affections of the subjects of George IV. from him?
In what condition was the nation at his accession?
What conspiracy signalised the commencement of his reign?
Relate the particulars of this conspiracy.
What particular trial took place at this period?
Relate the particulars of this trial.
What circumstances attended the coronation of George IV.?
When did Queen Caroline die, and what events happened at her death?
What noted personage died in 1821?
What subjects occupied the attention of Parliament in the years 1822 and 1823.
What instance of munificence did the king give at this period?
What steps were taken in the session of 1824 towards a more unrestricted system of trade?
What war broke out this year? and what were its results?
What noted persons died in the year 1827?
What changes took place in the administration subsequent to the death of Mr. Canning?
When did the Catholic Emancipation Bill pass?
What particular bill passed in Parliament in the session of 1830?
What event interrupted the business of the session?

What was the character of George IV. ?
By whom was he succeeded on the throne ?
Did any change take place in the administration on his accession ?
What revolution took place in France this year ?
What effect had this revolution on England ?
Describe some of the disturbances which took place.
What events led to a change in the administration ?
What was the character of the new ministry ?
What measures were they pledged to carry in Parliament ?
What was the nature of the proposed reform ?
Were ministers successful ?
What was the result of their defeat ?
By what test were the candidates tried at the new election ?
Was the Reform Bill again proposed ? and was it successful ?
What were the consequences of its rejection ?
When did the coronation of King William take place ? and what was the character of the ceremony ?
What particular malady visited England at this period ?
Describe the progress of the cholera morbus.
When did ministers again bring forward the question of reform ?
What were the results?
By what means was the measure finally carried ?
What particular measures rendered the session of 1833 memorable ?
What was the condition of Ireland at this period ?
What measures were adopted in 1834 to repress these outrages ?
What particular act signalised the Melbourne administration ?
What changes took place in the administration in the years 1834 and 1835?
What laws were passed in 1836 ?
When did King William die ? and what was his character ?
By whom was he succeeded on the throne ?
How was the accession of Queen Victoria hailed by the people ?
In what condition was the country on her accession ?
How did the great corporation of the city of London exhibit its loyalty to the crown ?
What particular events characterised the year 1838 ?
What measures were adopted by Parliament in the session of 1839 ?
Can you describe the riots which took place at Birmingham this year ?
To whom was Queen Victoria married ? and when ?
In 1840 events led to a war with China: what were these events ? and what were the results of this war ?
What change took place in the administration in the year 1841 ? and what events led to this change ?
What important treaty was signed this year ? and by what powers ?
What important measures were passed in the session of 1842 ?
Hostilities were this year renewed with China: what were their results?
In what other war were the British engaged this year ?
Give some account of this war.
What was the aspect of affairs in 1843 ?
What measures were adopted by Parliament this year ?
What commotions took place in Ireland ?
What disturbances took place in Wales in 1844 ?
What war occurred in the East Indies this year ?

What particular acts were passed in Parliament this year?
Who were appointed to the governments of the East Indies and China?
What acts were passed in the session of 1845?
In what wars were the British engaged in India during this year?
Give some account of the operations of these wars.
What great measure was passed in the session of 1846?
By whom was the Corn-Law Bill carried?
What were the consequences of Sir Robert Peel's success to him as minister?
Who succeeded him in office?
What particular calamity visited England, Ireland, and Scotland in the autumn of 1846?
What were the consequences of this visitation to Ireland?
By what was that country distinguished at the close of 1847?
What particular event happened in this year in England?
What particular cause gave rise to this distress?
What bill, in reference to Ireland, was passed in 1848?
What gave rise to that measure?
For what is that year remarkable?
In what position was England at that period?
To what particular measures in Parliament did disaffection lead?
In what position was the ministry?
In what war did England this year engage?
Who were the Sikhs?
What were the results of the war at the close of the year?
What particular plague again visited England?
What have you read about it?
What is said about Ireland in 1849?
What laws were enacted in Parliament in that year?
In what position did the ministry stand this year?
What battles were fought with the Sikhs in 1849?
What Eastern territory was annexed to the British Empire?
What attempts were made on the life of her Majesty this year?
What aspect did our domestic affairs present in 1850?
What measures were passed in Parliament?
What have you read about a Papal Brief from Rome?
How was it received in England?
What particular deaths occurred this year?
Relate what you have read about Sir Robert Peel.
Relate what you have read concerning the Duke of Cambridge.
Relate what you have read concerning Sir John Franklin's expedition.
For what particular design was the year 1850 memorable?
Whose conception was the Exhibition?
Who carried it out?
Whose plan for the building was adopted?
What was that plan?
What have you read about the Crystal Palace?
What nations sent their treasures for exhibition?
What have you read about the old English poet Chaucer?
When was the Great Exhibition opened?
Can you mention any of the articles exhibited?

What happened to the ministry in 1851 ?
After their recall, what did they do ?
What events took place on the Continent this year ?
What events happened at the Cape of Good Hope ?
In what state was the British Empire in 1852 ?
What was the aspect of political affairs ?
Under whom was a new ministry formed ?
Did the Derby Ministry prove effective ?
Whose death is recorded this year ?
Relate what you have read about the Duke of Wellington.
What tribute was paid to his memory ?
What happened to the Derby Ministry at the close of the year ?
Under whose auspices was a new ministry formed ?
What have you read about France this year ?
What have you read about Australia ?
In what war were the British forces this year engaged ?
What were its features at the close of the year ?
How did it end in 1853 ?
What measures were passed by the Aberdeen Ministry this year ?
By whom was the war at the Cape of Good Hope brought to a close?
What was the general condition of the country at this period ?
To what particular event did her Majesty's Speech allude at the opening of Parliament ?
What gave rise to the Russian war ?
Where did Omar Pasha defeat the Russians ?
Relate what happened at Sinope.
What was the result of this massacre ?
What was the state of public feeling at the opening of the year 1854 ?
What formed the chief topic of discussion on the opening of Parliament ?
When was war proclaimed in England ?
How was the intelligence received ?
With what peculiar features was the session of this year marked ?
Under whom did the English and French march to battle ?
Repeat Marshal St. Arnaud's order of the day issued on his quitting France.
Where did the British and French troops land ?
What events took place at Citate and Silistria between the Turks and Russians ?
What British officer fell at Silistria ?
What was the result of the siege of Silistria ?
What Russian fort did the English bombard this year ?
What happened to the Russian fleet ?
Where did the English and French armies rendezvous ?
What happened to them at Varna ?
What happened to the Russians in the Dobrudscha ?
What fresh victory did the Turks gain over the Russians ?
To what part of the Russian dominions did the allied armies proceed ?
What was their object ?
Where did they land ?

On what day did they land in the Crimea ?
What victory did they gain ?
Relate the particulars of the battle of the Alma.
What was the loss of the allies ?
What was the loss of the Russians ?
What was the next movement of the allies ?
What happened to the French commander ?
Who succeeded him ?
Against what part of Sebastopol did the allies direct their efforts ?
With what difficulties did they meet in the siege ?
What were the peculiar features of the siege ?
Can you relate anything that happened at Balaclava ?
What was the object of the Russians in attacking the allies in that quarter ?
Relate the charge of the light cavalry.
What battle happened the day after ?
What were its results ?
What great battle was fought on the 5th of November ?
Relate some of the particulars.
What was the loss of the allies ?
How were they situated during the winter ?
What happened to the fleet in November?
Did the Russian forces suffer during winter ?
Into what other parts was the war carried ?
What fort was captured ?
What towns were bombarded and destroyed ?
What was the character of the session of 1854 ?
How were the people of England affected towards the war at the opening of 1855 ?
What was done for the relief of the army ?
What great work was executed at Balaclava ?
What nation joined the allies in the spring ?
How did the three nations act together ?
What startling event occurred during the war this year ?
By whom was Nicholas succeeded ?
What was the result of the second bombardment of Sebastopol ?
Who succeeded to the command of the French army at this stage of the war ?
What was Pelissier's first exploit ?
What event happened soon after ?
By whom was Lord Raglan succeeded ?
When did the last and final assault commence?
In what manner did the Russians retreat ?
In what other parts was the war carried on this year ?
What fort was captured at the mouth of the Dnieper ?
What battle was fought between the Russians and Sardinians and French ?
What towns were captured in the Sea of Azoff ?
What took place in the White Sea ?
Tell me what happened in Asiatic Turkey.
Where did the allies winter ?
What preparations were made during the winter season ?

Were they required ?

Why were they not required ?

How was peace brought about?

What were its terms ?

Where was the conference held which settled these terms ?

What nations sent representatives?

How were the British, French, and Sardinian warriors received on their return home ?

When was the treaty of peace signed ?

What effect had the success of the Crimean war on Lord Palmerston's Cabinet ?

What country was annexed in this year to the British Empire in India ?

Relate the causes which led to that annexation.

In what wars was England engaged this year ?

Relate the events of those wars.

What circumstance caused a dissolution of Parliament in 1857 ?

State the result of the general election ?

When did the new Parliament meet, and what were its legislative measures in this session ?

What great event happened this year in India ?

Relate the leading particulars of this Sepoy rebellion ; its causes, and results in this present year.

What interesting event occurred in the royal family in 1858 ?

What circumstance led to the downfall of Lord Palmerston's Cabinet early in this year ?

By whom was Lord Palmerston succeeded as Premier ?

What was the first act of the Derby Cabinet ?

What were the first legislative measures of the Derby ministry ?

Tell me what you have read about the final suppression of the Sepoy mutiny.

Relate what you have read about the war with China; its operations and result.

What particular subjects engaged public attention at the opening of 1859 ?

To what did the Derby government stand pledged ?

What were the features and the fate of the Derby government Reform Bill ?

What followed the defeat of the Derby Cabinet ?

What was the result of the general election ?

When did the new Parliament meet ?

Tell me what circumstance led to the resignation of the Derby Cabinet.

What Cabinet was now formed ?

What event led to a renewal of hostilities with China in 1859 ?

On what subject were the two Houses of Parliament brought into collision in 1860 ?

What was done about Reform in the session of this year ?

Relate what you have read about the war with China in 1860 ; its operations and result.

Describe the features of the session of 1861.

You have read that preparations were made in England in this year for war with the North American States : relate the particulars.

What great personage died at the close of 1861 ?

Tell me all you have read about the death and character of this good prince.

When was the second International Exhibition, which Prince Albert had promoted, inaugurated ?

THE END.

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